



NIGORA AKHMEDOVA

PSYCHOLOGY, PEDAGOGY

Textbook



**MINISTRY OF HIGHER EDUCATION, SCIENCE AND INNO-
VATION OF THE REPUBLIC OF UZBEKISTAN**

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Textbook

For the 2nd year students of General medicine 60910200

ANDIJAN 2023

LBC: 88.6+74.0ya7
UDC: 37.015.3(075.8)

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A95 Psychology, pedagogy: Textbook / Akhmedova N.D. - Andjan: Nashr matbaa uyi, 2023 – 387 p.

ISBN: 978-9910-9474-2-1

"Psychology, pedagogy" textbook, field of Direction of education
"General medicine" 60910200, Andijan 2023.

Authorized for publication by order of the rector of ASMI No. 430-Sh dated July 4, 2023.

INTRODUCTION

The training of doctors, as practice shows, currently does not yet provide a sufficiently high-quality training of a specialist in the field of psychology and pedagogy, because, not concentrating their attention on certain aspects of psychological knowledge, graduates sometimes do not know how to adequately and correctly find an approach to the patient, understand his state of mind. The presence of psychological training of a physician and the study of psychology in the system of higher medical education contribute to a significant improvement in the quality of patient treatment and the training of highly qualified specialists who are able to purposefully transfer their experience to others, which is considered in modern society as the most significant value that forms the foundation for the development of a creative personality, boldly looking into the future.

Time proves the importance of the psychological and pedagogical training of a doctor for the greatest efficiency of his work, because. psychological diagnostics, psych-prophylaxis and psych-correction have become the leading directions in creating a favorable environment for interpersonal understanding in medicine and in society as a whole. Therefore, it is necessary to train generalists who know not only medical practice, but also have skills in the field of psychology and pedagogy. Of particular importance are the basics of didactics and psychology, topical issues of psychodiagnostics of interpersonal relationships and emotional reactions, the adequacy of mental processes and self-regulation.

Today, higher demands are placed on education. Modern society is faced with the task of training truly highly qualified personnel with knowledge that meets international standards. In this regard, the priorities in the content of education are currently changing significantly and more and more attention is being paid to such sciences as psychology and pedagogy in higher educational institutions of any profile.

INTRODUCTION TO PSYCHOLOGY. ROLE AND SIGNIFICANCE OF PSYCHOLOGICAL AND PEDAGOGICAL KNOWLEDGE IN MEDICINE.

"... a specialist focused on a particular organ, not only does not see the patient as a whole, he does not see medicine as a whole, he does not want to know the problems in general." N. V. Elstein .

Any person, based on his own experience is aware that he/she is somehow able to perceive, cognize the world around him/her, various objects and phenomena.

A person not only cognizes the around world, but also has own attitude to the objects and phenomena of this world - at the same time experiences and certain feelings: some objects please, give pleasure, he/she is indifferent to others and others cause grief. A good book gives us pleasure - a person's unworthy behavior causes indignation, a selfless act - admiration. A person not only perceives the around world and somehow relates to it, also acts in this world, showing his/her activity, makes a decision, strives for a goal, shows perseverance in overcoming difficulties and obstacles, that is, shows will.

Finally, each person is different in some way from others: one is interested in technology, another in music, and the third in sports. One shows abilities in the field of mathematics, the other - in the field of practical creativity, the third - in technical activities. One is hot, quick-tempered, unrestrained, the other is calm, imperturbable, the third is lively, mobile. One is hard-working and modest, the other is lazy and arrogant.

All this - sensations, perception, memory, thinking, imagination, feelings, will, manifestations of temperament and character, abilities - are phenomena of the human psyche. And the science that studies mental phenomena is called psychology. Psychology is a science that studies the facts, patterns and mechanisms of manifestation and development of the psyche as a special form of life activity.

1 § THE ROLE OF PSYCHOLOGY IN MEDICINE

According to the Institute of Medicine, primary care is the provision of “integrated, accessible health care services by clinicians who are accountable for addressing a large majority of personal health care needs, developing a sustained partnership with patients, and practicing in the context of family and community.”

- Mental and behavioral health services offered by psychologists and other qualified providers in primary care settings play a significant role in the prevention, diagnosis, management, and treatment of the leading causes of death, including heart disease, cancer, and chronic respiratory disease.

- Co-occurring mental disorders (e.g., anxiety and depression) can worsen the course of chronic diseases, such as cardiovascular disease, diabetes, obesity, asthma, epilepsy, and cancer.³⁻⁷ Psychological distress has also been found to weaken the immune system.

- Physicians are increasingly pressured to diagnose and treat mental and behavioral health problems that they are often not adequately trained to diagnose or treat. As many as 70% of primary care visits are driven by patients’ psychological problems, such as anxiety, panic, depression, and stress. More than 80% of patients with medically unexplained symptoms receive psychosocial treatment in primary care by a physician—only 10% will follow up on a referral to a mental health provider that is not co-located.

- Furthermore, in as many as 70% of individuals with depression, their depression goes undetected in primary care. Of individuals who die by suicide, about 90% had a mental disorder, and 40% had visited their primary care physician within the month before their suicide. Thus, primary care is an important setting for detecting, treating, and managing mental and behavioral health problems. Knowledge of psychology is vital in mental and behavioral health within primary health care. Knowledge helps to identify and modify the behavior of both

the physician and the patient in order to contribute to the health and well-being of people throughout life.

The profession of a doctor is a specific branch of science, for which quite certain inclinations and abilities are needed. It requires a highly developed level of empathy, apperception and anticipation. The extraverted orientation of the personality contributes to the mastery of this profession, while introversion makes communication difficult and to some extent limits the possibilities of the future doctor. An important role is played by the temperament of the future doctor and his communication skills. In addition to pronounced communicative abilities, organizational and creative abilities in finding ways to resolve extraordinary conflict and everyday situations should also be inherent. Moral qualities and their personal characteristics are also essential.

A scientific approach to the creation of a psychological school emerged only at the end of the 19th and beginning of the 20th centuries. in France and Russia. One of the founders of the medical-psychological direction was T.Ribot, who studied pathological forms of disturbance of character, cognitive processes, feelings and unconscious activity, which is extremely important when working with patients. In Russia, during the same period, attempts were also made to find a medical and psychological approach to studying the personality of a sick person. The founder of the psychological school in Russia was the prominent psycho neurologist V.M. Bekhterev, who, relying on the teachings of I.M. Sechenov on the reflex activity of the body, substantiated the basic provisions of objective psychology. In the psycho-neurological institute he created, experimental methods were tested for an objective study of behavioral variations on the basis of identifying the causes of the body's reactions to certain stimuli. According to the concept of the scientist, holistic responses were associated with a qualitative transformation of the body's energy, aimed at adapting to changing environmental conditions. Thus, the development of symptoms of the disease,

according to the scientist, is nothing more than a reflex transformation of the energy of the body's defenses to counteract inadequate stimuli. In this regard, all responses are formed in the process of development of the individual in a particular environment. At the same time, heredity determines only the type of nervous system (flexibility, plasticity), expressed in temperament. In 1908 V.M. Bekhterev developed a method of genetic reflex-logical research that reveals the relationship between the manifestations of mechanistic causality in combination with the innate inclinations of the individual. He experimentally proved the affinity of illusions with hallucinations and pointed out violations in orienting activity. He also developed a psychological approach to the treatment of alcoholics by means of hypnotic suggestion.

V.M. Bekhterev rightly emphasized the role of the word in treatment, noting that "if the patient does not feel better after a conversation with a doctor, this is not a doctor." He believed that during the conversation, the patient should explain the need to comply with the protective and restorative regimen, explain the essence of painful sensations and instill the idea that doctors are doing everything possible for his speedy recovery. The conversation should contribute to overcoming the phenomenon of "hospitalism", the longing that arises from loneliness and lack of communication.

In the work of K. Platonov "The word as a physiological and therapeutic factor" the importance of the chosen words and the style of the conversation was emphasized. It must be remembered that even one thoughtless word can cause a paradoxical emotional reaction in the patient, giving rise to iatrogenic, which sometimes occurs due to hyperesthesia (hypersensitivity) and suspiciousness of the patient, who is very sensitive to every word spoken to him.

Russian therapist M.Y. Mudrov clarified that "some people get sick from bodily causes, others from mental disorders." Consequently, the doctor's task is to understand the psychological

essence of the patient's condition in order to remove the traumatic effect that gives rise to a mental "disorder", because its presence will also interfere with the treatment of any ailment. It is necessary to reorient the patient to thoughts about recovery, awakening faith in oneself, in one's body and its defenses, regardless of the etiology of the disease.

A scientific study of pathogenic disorders of personality development, manifested in the relationship of the patient with others, was carried out in Russia by A.F. Lazursky (1923) and was further developed in the works of

V.N. Myasishchev. He suggested paying attention to changes in the manifestations of cognitive processes (perceptions, memory, thinking, imagination), volitional qualities and the level of mental development in general, taking into account the real conditions of the patient's social environment. Later this direction was developed by A.R. Luria.

A great contribution to the development of medical and psychological knowledge was made by such prominent Russian psychologists as A.A. Tokarsky, F.G. Rybakov, G.I. Rossolimo. In the works of L.S. Vygotsky outlined ways of working with mentally retarded children. On the initiative of S.L. Rubinstein created a laboratory for the study of path psychology.

In the cultural and historical concept of zones of proximal development L.S. Vygotsky, it should be emphasized that the new historical era puts forward new needs. This is a real and irreversible process of the gradual development of society, in which each new generation acquires significantly changed value orientations that meet the needs of the new time. Psychology is one of the most important sciences of the humanities cycle, helping to better understand both one's own emotions and the experiences of others. This is especially important for the doctor, whose most important goal is to understand the psychological state of the patient. Knowledge of psychology allows you to learn how to manage your behavior and overcome the sometimes arising misunderstanding and confused speech of the pa-

tient when collecting an anamnesis. Another philosopher Socrates noted that "it is impossible to heal the body without healing the soul", therefore, it is necessary to take into account the role of the word and the psychological mood in the process of talking with patients during their treatment.

Psychological science contributes to the creation of a favorable psychological climate in society, helps to mobilize forces and capabilities to fight the disease, helps to find adequate ways to alleviate the condition of patients in the clinic, etc. The criterion of objectivity in the development of psychological recommendations is the methodological principles on which the modern psychological science: determinism (the causality of the patient's mental disorders), development (taking into account the dynamics of existing changes), consistency (the sequence of constructing conversations and applying individual techniques), etc.

The psychological approach in medicine began to develop more actively in the post-Soviet states only at the end of the 20th century in the post- perestroika period, when the latest psycho-technics began to be introduced into practice, including psychological testing, which now occupies one of the leading places in the study of the patient.

The organization of the medical and psychological service in our country and the importance of ongoing psychological research is confirmed by a significant increase in the effectiveness of treatment with a psychological approach to the patient and conducting a medical and psychological examination in order to analyze in more detail the origins of the motivation of the patient's behavior, to develop an integrated approach when choosing psycho-technics and trainings in the organization his rehabilitation. Thanks to the introduction of psychological services in all spheres of human activity, and especially in medicine, it becomes possible to carry out the necessary and timely psycho-correction at all stages of the patient's treatment and convince him of a favorable outcome.

The doctor's worldview acts as a part of the value attitude

to the world, as a system of principles of this attitude. The defining feature of the worldview is not knowledge as such, but the development of attitudes towards patients on the basis of this knowledge. An integral component of the worldview are beliefs and psychological attitudes that are formed in the learning process, which is ultimately determined by the level of social development, the state of science and education. A decisive condition for the development of a doctor's worldview is his active participation in society. The process of formation of worldview positions and socialization in the profession is determined by the knowledge of ethics, psychology, deontology, the formation of beliefs and stereotypes of behavior. This makes it possible to obtain high-quality knowledge, participate in youth projects, creates favorable conditions for the development of a creative person who boldly looks to the future, is able to analyze facts and make decisions in non-standard situations.

The final product of the psychological approach is the development in the mind of a dynamic system of a person's ideas about himself, the so-called "I- end option, which arises in the process of social interaction as an inevitable and always the only product of mental development, as a relatively stable and at the same time subject to internal fluctuations and changes mental acquisition of personality.

In the structure of modern psychology, health psychology, medical, clinical psychology, path-psychology, developmental psychology, social psychology, and psychophysiology are of the greatest interest to a doctor, taking into account the tasks of his professional activity.

Clinical psychology is a branch of psychology that studies the psychological aspects of the occurrence, course and treatment of diseases, methods for their prevention, the psychological patterns of the doctor's influence on the patient, and the characteristics of the patient himself. Medical psychology includes three subsections: path-psychology, neuropsychology and psychosomatics.

Path-psychology is engaged in the accumulation of facts about the nature of the emerging changes in the course of mental processes in a person under the influence of an existing disease, experience of interaction with his social and physical environment. At the same time, path-psychology should be distinguished from psychopathology. The first of these two directions is a branch of psychology and, accordingly, uses its conceptual apparatus. Psychopathology, being a branch of psychiatry, develops within the framework of the latter.

Neuropsychology deals with the study of the morphological substrate of higher mental functions based on the results of a comparative analysis of brain lesions present in a patient with mental disorders observed in him. This direction of medical psychology arose at the intersection of such disciplines as psychology, neurology, neurosurgery, and neurophysiology.

Psycho-somatology (as a branch of clinical psychology) studies the influence of psychological factors on the occurrence of somatic pathology, ways of its prevention and compensation. Modern ideas about the mechanisms of psychosomatic reactions were formed under the influence of G. Selye's theory of stress.

In the practice of a doctor, sections adjacent to medical and clinical psychology are of great importance. Considering them in order of importance, first of all, it is necessary to point to psycho-diagnostics, which considers methods for studying individual mental formations, the personality as a whole, and the interaction of people with each other and with the environment. developed. No less important is such a section as correctional psychology, within the framework of which methods for correcting mental and behavioral phenomena that disrupt the process of human adaptation to the environment are being improved. The object of study of psychophysiology is the physiological mechanisms of mental processes. The psychology of individual differences clarifies the most significant features by which one person differs from another. As an independent section, one should name personal psychology, which studies the determinants that

determine the direction, goal-setting, motivation, behavior of the doctor, the patient and his relatives.

It is very important for a doctor to know social psychology, which considers the issues of a person's behavior as a member of various social groups, his social connections (for example, the relationship of a patient with a doctor and medical staff, family, colleagues, other patients).

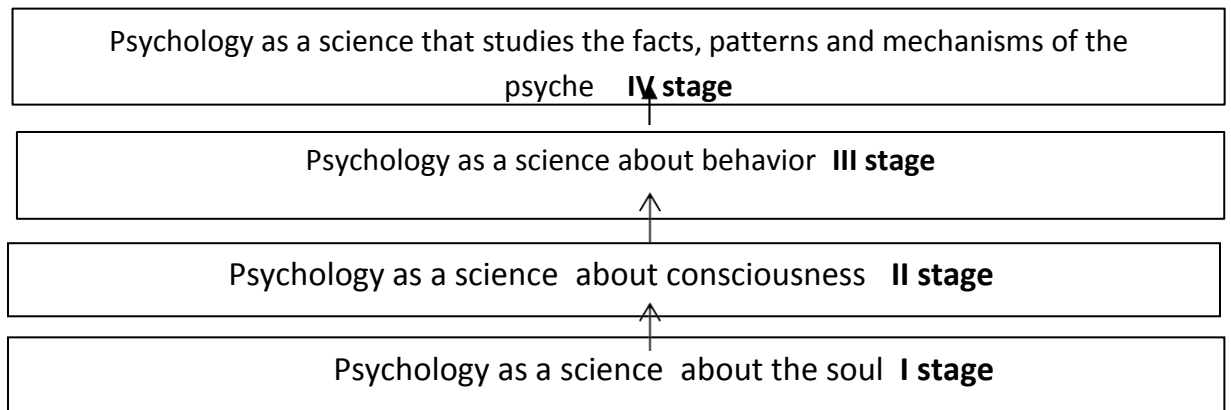
Recently, labor psychology, engineering psychology, and ergonomics have been actively developing. Labor psychology is engaged in the development of optimal modes of work and rest for a medical worker, patterns of development of fatigue, effective ways to restore physical and mental strength. A modern doctor is constantly dealing with complex equipment and computer technology. In the process of working with redundant information, sometimes arriving in a very short time, the probability of erroneous reading of incoming information, errors in its interpretation and decision-making inevitably increases. Minimization of professional mistakes is impossible without the creation of modern equipment designed taking into account the anatomical, physiological and psychological characteristics of a person, which is a section of psychology called ergonomics.

2 § HISTORY OF PSYCHOLOGY

Psychology is a science, both very old and very young. The first presentation of psychological phenomena was given by the ancient Greek scientist Aristotle (384-322 BC) in his treatise *On the Soul*. Own scientific experimental study of mental phenomena and their regularities was started in the second half of the 11th century, and truly scientific psychology began to take shape at the turn of the 19th and 20th centuries.

The main stages in the formation of psychology as a science can be represented in the form of the following scheme 1.

Scheme 1. The main stages in the development of psychology as a science



Stage I - psychology as the science of the soul. This definition of psychology was given more than two thousand years ago. The presence of the soul tried to explain all the incomprehensible phenomena in human life.

Stage II - psychology as a science of consciousness. It arises in the 17th century in connection with the development of the natural sciences. The ability to think, feel, desire is called consciousness. The main method of study was the observation of a person for himself and the description of the facts.

Stage III - psychology as a science of behavior. Arises in the 20th century. The task of psychology is to set up experiments and observe what can be directly seen, namely, behavior, actions, reactions of a person (the motives that cause actions were not taken into account).

Stage IV - Psychology - as a science that studies the objective patterns, manifestations and mechanisms of the psyche.

In order to more clearly present the path of development of psychology as a science, we briefly consider its main stages and directions.

1. The first ideas about the psyche were associated with animism (from Latin anima - spirit, soul) - the most ancient views, according to which everything that exists in the world has a soul. The soul was understood as an entity independent of

the body, controlling all living and inanimate objects.

2. Later, in the philosophical teachings of antiquity, psychological aspects were touched upon, which were solved in terms of idealism or in terms of materialism. Thus, the materialistic philosophers of antiquity Democritus, Lucretius, Epicurus understood the human soul as a kind of matter, as a bodily formation, consisting of spherical, small and most mobile atoms.

3. According to the ancient Greek idealist philosopher Plato (427-347), who was a student and follower of Socrates, the soul is something divine, different from the body, and the human soul exists before it enters in connection with the body. It is the image and outflow of the world soul. The soul is an invisible, sublime, divine, eternal principle. Soul and body are in complex relationship with each other. According to its divine origin, the soul is called upon to control the body, to direct the life of a person. However, sometimes the body takes the soul into its fetters. The body is torn apart by various desires and passions, it takes care of food, is subject to illnesses, fears, temptations. Mental phenomena are divided by Plato into reason, courage (in the modern sense - will) and desires (motivation). Intelligence is located in the head, courage is in the chest lust is in the abdomen. The harmonious unity of the rational principle, noble aspirations and desires gives integrity to the spiritual life of a person. The soul lives in the human body and guides him throughout his life and after death leaves him and enters the divine "world of ideas." Since the soul is the highest thing in a person, he should take care of its health more than the health of the body. Depending on what kind of lifestyle a person led, after his death, a different fate awaits his soul: it will either wander near the earth, burdened with bodily elements, or fly off the earth into an ideal world, into a world of ideas that exists outside of matter and outside of the individual consciousness. "Aren't people ashamed to take care of money, fame and honors, but not to take care of their mind, truth and their soul and not think that it should be better?" ask Socrates and Plato.

4. The great philosopher Aristotle in his treatise "On the Soul" singled out psychology as a kind of field of knowledge and for the first time put forward the idea of the inseparability of the soul and the living body. Aristotle rejected the view of the soul as a substance. At the same time, he did not consider it possible to consider the soul in isolation from matter (living bodies). The soul, according to Aristotle, is incorporeal it is the form of a living body, the cause and purpose of all its vital functions. Aristotle put forward the concept of the soul as a function of the body, and not some external phenomenon in relation to it. The soul, or "psyche," is the engine that enables a living being to realize itself. If the eye were a living being, then its soul would be sight. So the human soul is the essence of a living body, it is the realization of its being, - Aristotle believed. The main function of the soul, according to Aristotle, is the realization of the biological existence of the organism. The center, "psyche", is in the heart, where the impressions from the sense organs come. These impressions form a source of ideas, which, combined with each other as a result of rational thinking, subordinate behavior to themselves. The driving force of human behavior is the desire (internal activity of the body), associated with a feeling of pleasure or displeasure. Sense perceptions constitute the beginning of knowledge. The preservation and reproduction of sensations gives memory. Thinking is characterized by the compilation of general concepts, judgments and conclusions. A special form of intellectual activity is the mind (reason), brought in from outside in the form of divine mind. Thus, the soul manifests itself in various abilities for activity: nourishing, feeling, rational. Higher abilities arise from the lower ones and on their basis. The primary cognitive faculty of man is sensation; it takes the form of sensually perceived objects without their matter, just as "wax takes the impression of a seal without iron." Sensations leave a trace in the form of representations - images of those objects that previously acted on the senses. Aristotle showed that these images are connected in three directions: by similarity, by contigu-

ity and contrast, thereby indicating the main types of connections - associations of mental phenomena. Aristotle believed that knowledge of man is possible only through knowledge of the universe and the order existing in it. Thus, at the first stage, psychology acted as the science of the soul.

5. In the era of the Middle Ages the idea was established that the soul is a divine, supernatural principle, and therefore the study of mental life should be subordinated to the tasks of theology.

Only the outer side of the soul, which faces the material world, can yield to human judgment. The greatest mysteries of the soul are accessible only in religious (mystical) experience.

6. From the 17th century a new era begins in the development of psychological knowledge. In connection with the development of the natural sciences, with the help of experimental methods, they began to study the laws of human consciousness. The ability to think and feel is called consciousness. Psychology began to develop as a science of consciousness. It is characterized by attempts to comprehend the spiritual world of a person mainly from general philosophical, speculative positions, without the necessary experimental base. R. Descartes (1596-1650) comes to the conclusion about the difference between the soul of a person and his body: "The body by its nature is always divisible, while the spirit is indivisible." However, the soul is capable of producing movements in the body. This contradictory dualistic doctrine gave rise to a problem called psychophysical: how are bodily (physiological) and mental (mental) processes in a person related? Descartes created a theory to explain behavior based on a mechanistic model. According to this model, the information delivered by the senses is sent along the sensory nerves to the openings in the brain, which these nerves expand, which allows the "animal souls" in the brain to flow through the thinnest tubes - the motor nerves - into the muscles, which inflate, leads to withdrawal of the irritated limb, or causes one or another action to be performed. Thus, there was no need to re-

sort to the soul to explain how simple behavioral acts arise. Descartes laid the foundations for the deterministic (causal) concept of behavior with its central idea of a reflex as a natural motor response of the organism to external physical stimulation. This is Cartesian dualism - the body, acting mechanically, and the "reasonable soul" that controls it, localized in the brain. Thus, the concept of "Soul" began to turn into the concept of "Mind", and later - into the concept of "Consciousness". The famous Cartesian phrase "I think, therefore I am" became the basis of the postulate that the first thing which a person discovers himself is his own consciousness. The existence of consciousness is the main and unconditional fact, and the main task of psychology is analyzing the state and content of consciousness. On the basis of this postulate, psychology began to develop - it made consciousness its subject

7. An attempt to reunite the body and soul of man, separated by the teachings of Descartes, was made by the Dutch philosopher Spinoza (1632-1677).

There is no special spiritual principle it is always one of the manifestations of an extended substance (matter).

Soul and body are determined by the same material causes. Spinoza believed that such an approach makes it possible to consider the phenomena of the psyche with the same accuracy and objectivity as lines and surfaces are considered in geometry.

Thinking is an eternal property of substance (matter, nature), therefore, to a certain extent, thinking is inherent in both stone and animals, and to a large extent inherent in man, manifesting itself in the form of intellect.

8. The German philosopher G. Leibniz (1646-1716), rejecting the equality of the psyche and consciousness established by Descartes, introduced the concept of the unconscious psyche. The hidden work of psychic forces, countless "small perceptions", is continuously going on in the human soul. Conscious desires and passions arise from them.

9. The term "empirical psychology" was introduced by

the German philosopher of the 18th century X. Wolf to designate a direction in psychological science, the basic principle of which is to observe specific mental phenomena, classify them and establish a regular connection between them and can be verified by experience. The English philosopher J. Locke (1632-1704) considers the human soul as a passive, but capable of perceiving environment, comparing it with a blank slate on which nothing is written. The human soul which is awaked under the influence of sensory impressions, is filled with simple ideas and begins to think, that is, to form complex ideas. In the language of psychology, Locke introduced the concept of "association"

- a connection between mental phenomena, in which the actualization of one of them entails the appearance of another. So by association of ideas, psychology began to study how a person is aware of the world around him. The study of the relationship between the soul and the body is finally inferior to the study of mental activity and consciousness.

Locke believed that there are two sources of all human knowledge: the first source is the objects of the external world the second is the activity of a person's own mind. The activity of the mind, thinking is known with the help of a special inner feeling - reflection. Reflection - according to Locke - is "the observation to which the mind exposes its activity", it is the focus of a person's attention on the activity of his own soul. Mental activity can proceed, as it were, at two levels: processes of the first level - perception, thoughts desires (every person and child has them); processes of the second level - observation or "contemplation" of these perceptions, thoughts, desires (this is only for mature people who reflect on themselves, cognize their spiritual experiences and states). This method of introspection becomes an important means of studying the mental activity and consciousness of people.

10. The separation of psychology into an independent science took place in the 60s of 19th century .It was associated with the creation of special research institutions - psychological la-

laboratories and institutes, departments in higher educational institutions, as well as with the introduction of an experiment to study mental phenomena. The first version of experimental psychology as an independent scientific discipline was the physiological psychology of the German scientist W. Wundt (1832-1920). In 1879, Wundt opened the world's first experimental psychological laboratory in Leipzig.

In the field of consciousness, Wundt believed, there is a special mental causality that is subject to scientific objective research. Consciousness was divided into mental structures, the simplest elements: sensations, images and feelings. The role of psychology, according to Wundt, is to give as detailed a description of these elements as possible. "Psychology is the science of the structures of consciousness" - this direction was called the structural approach. We used the method of introspection, self-observation.

One psychologist compared the picture of consciousness to a flowering meadow: visual images, auditory impressions, emotional states and thoughts, memories, desires - all this can be in the mind at the same time. A particularly clear and distinct area stands out in the field of consciousness - the "field of attention", the "focus of consciousness"; outside it there is an area whose contents are indistinct, vague, undifferentiated - this is the "periphery of consciousness". The contents of consciousness filling both described areas of consciousness are in continuous motion. Wundt's experiments with the metronome showed that the monotonous clicks of the metronome are involuntarily rhythmic in human perception, that is, consciousness is rhythmic in nature, and the organization of the rhythm can be both arbitrary and involuntary. Wundt tried to study such a characteristic of consciousness as its volume. The experiment showed that a series of eight double beats of a metronome (or of 16 separate sounds) is a measure of the volume of consciousness. Wundt believed that psychology should find the elements of consciousness, decompose the complex dynamic picture of consciousness into simple,

further indivisible parts. Wundt declared individual impressions, or sensations, to be the simplest elements of consciousness. Sensations are objective elements of consciousness. There are also subjective elements of consciousness, or feeling. Wundt proposed three pairs of subjective elements: pleasure-displeasure, excitement-sedation, tension-release. From a combination of subjective elements, all human feelings are formed, for example, joy is pleasure and excitement, hope is pleasure and tension, fear is displeasure and tension.

But the idea of decomposing the psyche into the simplest elements turned out to be false; it was impossible to assemble complex states of consciousness from simple elements. Therefore, by the 20s. of 20th century, this psychology of consciousness has practically ceased to exist.

11. Functionalist approach. The American psychologist W. James proposed to study the functions of consciousness and its role in human survival. He hypothesized that the role of consciousness is to enable a person to adapt to different situations, either repeating already developed forms of behavior, or changing them depending on the circumstances, or mastering new actions if the situation requires it. According to the functionalists, "psychology is the science of the functions of consciousness". They used the methods of introspection, self-observation, fixing the time for solving problems.

12. James reflected in the concept of "stream of consciousness" - the process of movement of consciousness, the continuous change of its contents and states. The processes of consciousness are divided into two large classes: some of them occur as if by themselves, others are organized and directed by man. The first processes are called involuntary, the second - arbitrary.

13. I. M. Sechenov (1829-1905) is considered the founder of Russian scientific psychology. In his book "Reflexes of the Brain" (1863), the basic psychological processes receive a physiological interpretation. Their scheme is the same as that of reflexes: they originate in an external influence, continue with central

nervous activity and end with a response activity - movement, deed, speech. With this interpretation, Sechenov made an attempt to "pull out" psychology from the circle of the inner world of man. However, the specificity of psychic reality was underestimated in comparison with its physiological basis, the role of cultural and historical factors in the formation and development of the human psyche was not taken into account.

14. Behavioral approach. The American psychologist Watson proclaimed in 1913 that psychology would gain the right to be called a science when it applied objective experimental methods of study. Objectively, one can study only the behavior of a person that occurs in a given situation. Each situation corresponds to a specific behavior that should be objectively recorded. "Psychology is the science of behavior" and all concepts related to consciousness should be banished from scientific psychology. "The expression "a child is afraid of a dog" in scientific terms does not mean anything, objective descriptions are needed "tears and trembling in a child increase when a dog approaches him. New forms of behavior appear as a result of the formation of conditioned reflexes (conditioning) (Watson). All behavior is determined by its consequences (Skinner). Human actions are formed under the influence of the social environment a person is completely dependent on it. A person is also inclined to imitate the behavior of other people, taking into account how favorable the results of such imitation can be for himself.

Important merits of behaviorism are: the introduction of objective methods of registration and analysis of externally observed reactions, human actions, processes, events; discovery of the patterns of learning, the formation of skills, behavioral reactions.

The main drawback of behaviorism is the underestimation of the complexity of human mental activity, the convergence of the psyche of animals and humans, ignoring the processes of consciousness, creativity, and self-determination of the individual.

15. "Gestalt psychology" arose in Germany thanks to the efforts of T. Wertheimer, W. Koehler and K. Lewin, who put forward a program for studying the psyche from the point of view of integral structures (gestalts). Gestalt psychology opposed the associative psychology of W. Wundt and E. Titchener, who interpreted complex mental phenomena as built from simple associations according to the laws.

The concept of gestalt (from German "form") originated in the study of sensory formations, when the "primacy" of their structure in relation to the components (sensations) included in these formations was discovered. For example, although a melody, when performed in different keys, evokes different sensations, it is recognized as one and the same. Thinking is interpreted similarly: it consists in discretion, awareness of the structural requirements of the elements of a problem situation and in actions that meet these requirements (W. Kohler). The construction of a complex mental image occurs in the insight - a special mental act of instantaneous grasping of relationships (structures) in the perceived field. Gestalt psychology also opposed its positions to behaviorism, which explained the behavior of an organism in a problem situation by enumeration of "blind" motor tests, only occasionally leading to success. The merits of Gestalt psychology lie in the development of the concept of a psychological image, in the approval of a systematic approach to mental phenomena.

16. At the beginning of the 20th century in psychology, a direction of psychoanalysis, or Freudianism, arose. Z. Freud introduced a number of important topics into psychology: unconscious motivation, defense mechanisms of the psyche, the role of sexuality in it, the impact of childhood mental trauma on behavior in adulthood, etc. However, his closest students came to the conclusion that it was not sexual drives, mainly, and the feeling of inferiority and the need to compensate for this defect (A. Adler), or the collective unconscious (archetypes), which has absorbed the universal experience (K. Jung), determine the mental

development of the individual.

The psychoanalytic direction paid increased attention to the study of unconscious mental processes. Unconscious processes can be divided into two large classes:

1 - unconscious mechanisms of conscious actions (unconscious automatic actions and automated skills, phenomena of an unconscious set);

2 - unconscious stimuli of conscious actions (this is what Freud intensively studied - impulses from the unconscious area of the psyche (desires, repressed desires, experiences) have a strong influence on the actions and states of a person, although a person does not suspect this and often does not know why he does this or other action).

Unconscious representations hardly pass into consciousness, practically remaining unconscious due to the work of two mechanisms - the mechanisms of repression and resistance. Consciousness resists them, that is, a person does not let the whole truth about himself into consciousness. Therefore, unconscious ideas, having a large energy charge, break through into the conscious life of a person, taking a distorted or symbolic form (three forms of manifestation of the unconscious - dreams, erroneous actions - slips of the tongue, slips of the tongue, forgetting things, neurotic symptoms).

17. K. Horney, G. Sullivan and E. Fromm, the reformers of Freud's psychoanalysis (neo-Freudians), tried to connect the nature of the unconscious core of the human psyche with the social conditions of his life. A person is driven not only by biological predetermined unconscious urges, but also by acquired aspirations for security and self-realization (Horney), images of oneself and others that developed in early childhood (Sullivan), and the influence of the socio-economic structure of society (Fromm).

18. Representatives of cognitive psychology W. Neisser, A. Paivio and others assign a decisive role to knowledge in the behavior of the subject (from the Latin "cognito" - knowledge). For them, the central issue is the organization of knowledge in

the memory of the subject, the correlation of verbal and figurative components in the processes of memorization and thinking.

19. Humanistic psychology - its most prominent representatives G. Allport, G. A. Murray, G. Murphy, K. Rogers, A. Maslow consider the healthy creative personality of a person to be the subject of psychological research. The goal of such a person is not the need for homeostasis, as psychoanalysis believes, but self-fulfillment, self-actualization, the growth of the constructive beginning of the human "I". A person is open to the world, endowed with the potential for continuous development and self-realization. Love, creativity, growth, higher values, meaning - it is these and related concepts that characterize the basic needs of a person. As V. Frankl, the author of the concept of logotherapy, notes, in the absence or loss of interest in life, a person experiences boredom, indulges in vice, he is struck by severe failures.

20. Spiritual (Christian) psychology can also be considered a peculiar branch of humanistic psychology.

Considering it unlawful to limit the subject of psychology to the phenomena of mental life, she turns to the realm of the spirit. Spirit is the power of self-determination for the better, the gift to strengthen and overcome what is rejected. Spirituality gives a person access to love, conscience and a sense of duty. It helps a person overcome the crisis of groundlessness, the illusory nature of his existence.

21. Transpersonal psychology considers a person as a spiritual cosmic being, inextricably linked with the entire Universe, cosmos, humanity, having the ability to access the global information cosmic field. Through the unconscious psyche, a person is connected with the unconscious psyche of other persons, with the "collective unconscious of mankind", with cosmic information, with the "world mind".

22. Interactive psychology considers a person as a being, the main characteristic of which is communication, interaction between people. The purpose of psychology is to study the laws

of interaction, communication, relationships, conflicts (E. Berne).

23. A significant contribution to the development of psychology of the XX-th century was made by scientists L.S. Vygotsky (1896-1934), A.N. Leontiyev (1903-1979), A.R. Luria (1902-1977) and P.Ya. Galperin (1902-1988). L.S. Vygotsky introduced the concept of higher mental functions (thinking in concepts, rational speech, logical memory, voluntary attention) as a specifically human, socially conditioned form of the psyche, and also laid the foundations for the cultural-historical concept of human mental development. These functions initially exist as forms of external activity, and only later - as a completely internal (intrapyschic) process. They come from forms of verbal communication between people and are mediated by the signs of the language. The system of signs determines behavior to a greater extent than the surrounding nature, since a sign, a symbol contains a program of behavior in a collapsed form. Higher mental functions develop in the process of learning, i.e. joint activities of a child and an adult.

A.N. Leontiev conducted a series of experimental studies revealing the mechanism of the formation of higher mental functions as a process of "growing" (interiorization) of higher forms of tool-sign actions into the subjective structures of the human psyche.

A.R. Luria paid special attention to the problems of cerebral localization of higher mental functions and their disorders. He was one of the founders of a new field of psychological science - neuropsychology.

P.Y. Galperin considered mental processes (from perception to thinking inclusive) as an orienting activity of the subject in problem situations. The psyche itself historically arises only in a situation of mobile life for orientation on the basis of an image and is carried out with the help of actions in terms of this image. P.Y. Galperin is the author of the concept of gradual formation of mental actions (images, concepts). The practical implementation of this concept can significantly increase the effectiveness of

training.

The current stage of development of scientific psychology Arises in the 20th century. She sees the tasks of psychology in observing what can be directly seen, namely, behavior, human reactions, motives that cause actions, were not taken into account.

Individual forms and types of mental activity are called mental processes. The psychic exists, first of all, as a living process, extremely plastic, continuous, never completely set from the beginning, and therefore forming and developing, giving rise to certain products or results (mental states, concepts, feelings, solving or not solving a problem, etc.).

§ CONSCIOUSNESS

Only man has the highest form of mental life - consciousness.

Consciousness

Consciousness is one of the most difficult objects for scientific study. It is not perceived by the senses, i.e. invisible, intangible, has no mass and form, is not located in space, etc. Nevertheless, no one doubts that consciousness exists and can be said to have a special, psychic or spiritual being. The concept of consciousness unites various forms and manifestations of spiritual reality in human life; it is the highest of the abilities of the individual. At present, the essence of these forms is interpreted from two positions - materialistic and idealistic.

In the materialistic interpretation, consciousness is declared secondary in relation to the material world and is understood as a special property of matter - a "tool" of the brain, its function. In this regard, consciousness is a property of highly organized biological matter (the human brain) to reflect the world.

In the idealistic interpretation, consciousness is understood as the only reliable reality. The concept of matter is questioned, and the things we perceive are declared to exist only in our consciousness (since they can only be an illusion, a dream, and it is

not possible to prove their reality and objectivity).

There are three main properties of consciousness:

- ideality (consciousness cannot be measured, explored with the help of instruments);
- orientation (consciousness is always directed to an object or to itself);
- activity (consciousness not only displays the world, but also develops various ideas).

Consciousness is divided into *individual* (the inner world of an individual) and *public* (the spiritual world of society - science, religion, morality, politics, law, etc.), as well as *everyday* (based on common sense and everyday experience) and *scientific* (systemic, theoretical consciousness based on objective data).

Consciousness is expressed in purposeful labor activity that transforms the environment and is associated with the ability to pre-think one's actions, plan ways and means to achieve the set goals, and clearly imagine the final result.

If we understand the psyche broadly, as the entire space of our inner world, then consciousness is then understood in the broadest sense - as the highest form of the psyche, namely: all those mental processes (internal information processes) in which a person can give himself an account.

Consciousness in a broad sense is a process of orientation in the external world and self-management, in which a person can give himself an account.

However, both the psyche and consciousness are often understood more narrowly, and then, if we use the metaphor of a searchlight, then the searchlight of the psyche is directed outward and illuminates the outside world. The searchlight of consciousness is directed inward and illuminates

the inner world: we get the opportunity to be aware of what is happening to us and in our soul.

Speaking of consciousness, it is important to distinguish between consciousness as a process and consciousness as a result.

Consciousness as a process is an energy (power) that illu-

minates the inner world of a person and makes the management of mental processes obvious and controllable. Energy, that brings light, strength and control.

The conscious is illuminated by the light of consciousness. Conscious movement of the hand - which we track in detail, is not impulsive, but controlled movement. A conscious objection is not one that flew out by accident, unnoticed, but one that we looked at, somehow appreciated and which, as an objection, was allowed.

The unconscious is what happens in a person or with a person by itself, naturally, unconsciously: without conscious control and does not require additional conscious efforts.

Consciousness as a result is the inner world of a person, but open to external influences. Consciousness is an area of the mental (inner world) accessible to internal vision, understanding and control. The subconscious is a less accessible area. The unconscious is an inaccessible area.

You can imagine the structure of consciousness consisting of four sectors (Fig. 1)

Sector I - sensations, ideas obtained with the help of the senses;
 sector II – thinking, logical operations;
 sector III – emotions, feelings, experiences;
 sector IV - the highest motives - values, imagination, creativity.

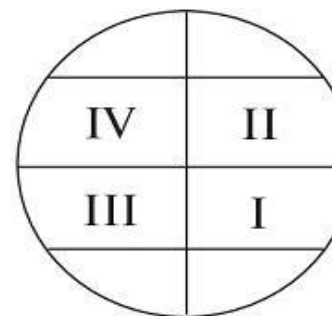
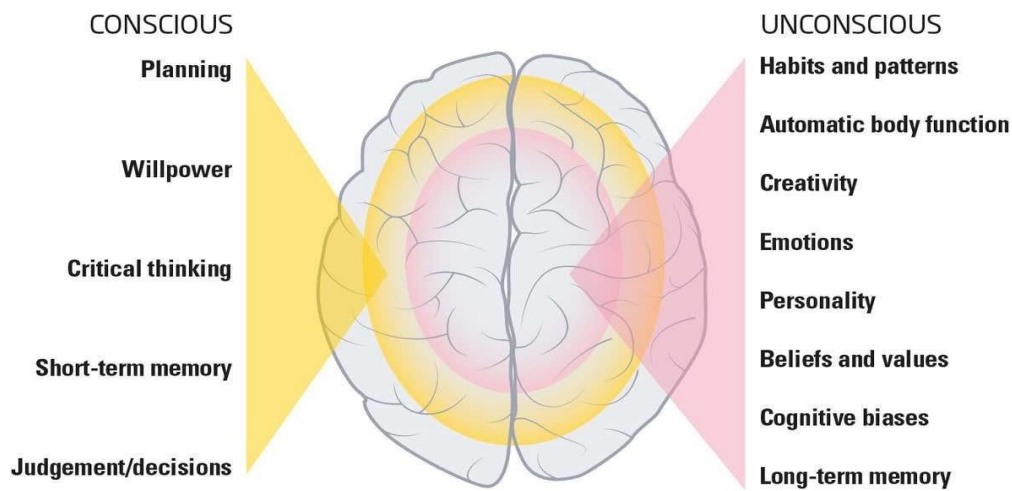


Figure 1. Structure of consciousness

External cognitive activity (sectors I and II) and emotional and value activity (sectors III and IV) are responsible for the activity of the left and right hemispheres of the brain, respectively. The upper segment (sectors II and IV) is responsible for the super conscious (rules of conduct, social norms), the lower seg-

ment (sectors I and III) is responsible for the unconscious (mental processes not represented in the mind of the subject).

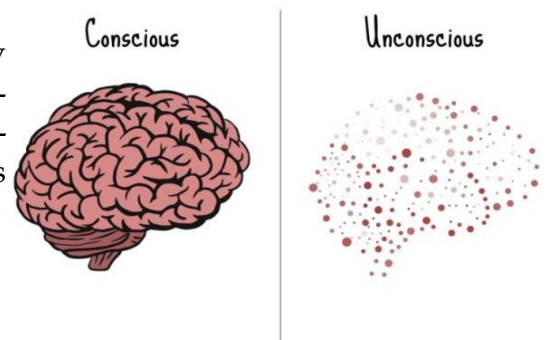


Unconscious

The unconscious is a set of mental formations, processes and states that are not represented in the mind of a person, in the functioning and influence of which he is not aware.

Consciousness and the unconscious

Until the second half of the 19th century, philosophy was dominated by the belief that a person in his actions is guided by consciousness, the defining element of which is reason. This idea is expressed in its most complete form in the philosophy of Hegel.



The concept of the unconscious was introduced into science by the Austrian psychologist and psychiatrist Sigmund Freud (1856-1939). At the end of the 19th century, a new direction in philosophy appeared, based on the discoveries of Z. Freud. Freud proved that in the inner world of a person there are spheres, the content of which a person cannot or does not want to be aware of. Two types of unconscious actions should be dis-

tinguished. The first type includes actions that were previously realized, were under the control of consciousness, and then became automatic. For example, when a person learns to walk or write, his consciousness is directed to every effort in this direction, and when these operations are mastered, the person performs them unconsciously. The second kind of unconscious actions never passed through the sphere of consciousness. It is this type that is called the unconscious in psychology. The unconscious plays an important role in human life and society, as it largely determines human behavior.

In the most general form, according to Freud, the structure of the psyche can be represented as three levels:

super conscious - prohibitions, norms, traditions, morality, laws, public opinion;

consciousness - clearly conscious thoughts, desires, etc.;

unconscious - secret, unconscious desires, thoughts, complexes, automatisms.

According to Freud, everyone experiences antisocial desires. In childhood, a person learns to suppress them out of fear of punishment (embodied in the super conscious). However, even suppressed and forgotten, desires do not disappear, but are concentrated in the unconscious, where they wait in the wings. Repressed experiences can be combined into stable groups - complexes. For example, an inferiority complex is a set of feelings about one's shortcomings and a desire to compensate for them. Unconscious desires and complexes, according to Freud, are usually of a sexual or aggressive nature. Although the person is not aware of them, they often make themselves known in dreams, humor slips of the tongue.

Consciousness is an intermediate part of the psyche. It is supported from below by fears and instincts, from above by the demands of society. It is impossible to succumb to instincts - this will lead to conflicts in society, it is also impossible to suppress them - this will lead to complexes, neuroses, mental illness. A person during his life must maneuver between these extremes.

The contents of the unconscious can become accessible to consciousness only with the help of special methods and techniques of psychoanalysis. If the origins and causes of, for example, dreams are understood, then it ceases to be unconscious, it becomes conscious.

Freud tried to explain from the point of view of psychoanalysis the whole of human history. Society creates prohibitions on the manifestations of human sexuality. The energy, which at the same time remains unclaimed, is forced to go in a different direction, sublimate, i.e., be transformed. This leads to the fact that a person turns to socially acceptable forms of activity: industrial, religious, political, artistic, etc. For example, in art, the energy of sexual desire is transformed into the energy of artistic activity the artist replaces forbidden actions with legal images.

Freud's followers developed the doctrine of the unconscious, continued to work on finding methods to overcome its destructive effects. The Swiss psychiatrist Carl Gustav Jung (1875-1961) believed that in addition to the individual unconscious, there is also a collective unconscious that contains unconscious images common to all people - archetypes. They manifest themselves in the "dreams" of all mankind - myths, legends, fairy tales, parables, where the main patterns of behavior in different situations are set. These patterns are assimilated from childhood, and then automatically, unconsciously reproduced in social activities.

In addition to desires, complexes and archetypes, the unconscious also includes simple automatic actions in the performance of which consciousness is not involved (for example, basic driving skills).

Thus, Jung discovered a new level of the unconscious, which he called the collective unconscious. This level can never be realized, but it manifests itself in the form of mythological images that are common to all cultures of the world. Jung called them archetypes, which receive different interpretations in myths, fairy tales, poetry, manifest themselves in dreams and

human behavior. Archetypes are some ideas encoded in the structure of the brain, they do not have an unambiguously negative content, but are, as it were the foundation of the conscious, but they are irrational and cannot be understood by a person. Moreover, an attempt to directly comprehend the archetypes can lead to tragedy. The psychic energy contained in the archetypes can destroy the human psyche. To prevent this from happening, religious symbols stand between consciousness and the unconscious, which, as it were, transform the energy of the unconscious into human meanings. The "disenchantment" of religious symbols in our time, according to Jung, can lead to tragic consequences, to the death of culture.

Consciousness and the collective unconscious

Individual consciousness can exist only on the basis of the collective unconscious. The relationship between consciousness and the collective unconscious was revealed by K.G. Jung.

The collective unconscious is a vast spiritual heritage reborn in every individual brain structure. Consciousness, as Jung writes, on the contrary, is an ephemeral phenomenon that implements all momentary adaptations and orientations, which is why its work can most likely be compared with orientation in space. The unconscious contains the source of forces that sets the soul in motion. The movement of the soul, i.e. the content of mental life is regulated by archetypes: "All the most powerful ideas and ideas of mankind are reducible to archetypes." This applies not only to religious ideas, but also to central scientific, philosophical and moral concepts, which can be considered as variants of ancient ideas that have taken their modern form as a result of the use of consciousness.

Consciousness is in constant interaction with the individual unconscious. In the zone of consciousness, a small part of the signals that simultaneously come from the external and internal environment of the body is reflected. Signals that have entered the zone of consciousness are used by a person to consciously control their behavior. The rest of the signals are also used by

the body to regulate certain processes, but at a subconscious and unconscious level. The unconscious and subconscious are those phenomena, processes of properties and states that, in their effect on behavior, are similar to conscious mental states, but are not actually reflected by a person, i.e. are not recognized.

The difference between the unconscious and the subconscious lies in the fact that the unconscious itself is such a mental formation that under no circumstances becomes conscious, and the subconscious is those ideas, desires, aspirations that have left consciousness at the moment, but can later come into consciousness or be restored.

The unconscious principle is one way or another represented in almost all mental processes, properties and states of a person.

Unconscious sensations are sensations of balance, muscular sensations that cause involuntary reflexive reactions in the visual and auditory central systems.

Unconscious images of perception are manifested in the feeling of familiarity that arises in a person when perceiving an object or situation.

Unconscious memory is a memory that is associated with long-term memory that controls at an unconscious level thinking, imagination, attention of a person at a given moment in time. The genetic memory is also unconscious. Unconscious thinking manifests itself in the process of solving creative problems by a person, when template solutions are exhausted. Unconscious speech acts as inner speech. Unconscious motivation affects the direction and nature of actions.

The unconscious in a person's personality is those qualities, interests, needs, etc., that a person is not aware of in himself, but which are inherent in him and manifest themselves in a variety of involuntary reactions, actions, mental phenomena.

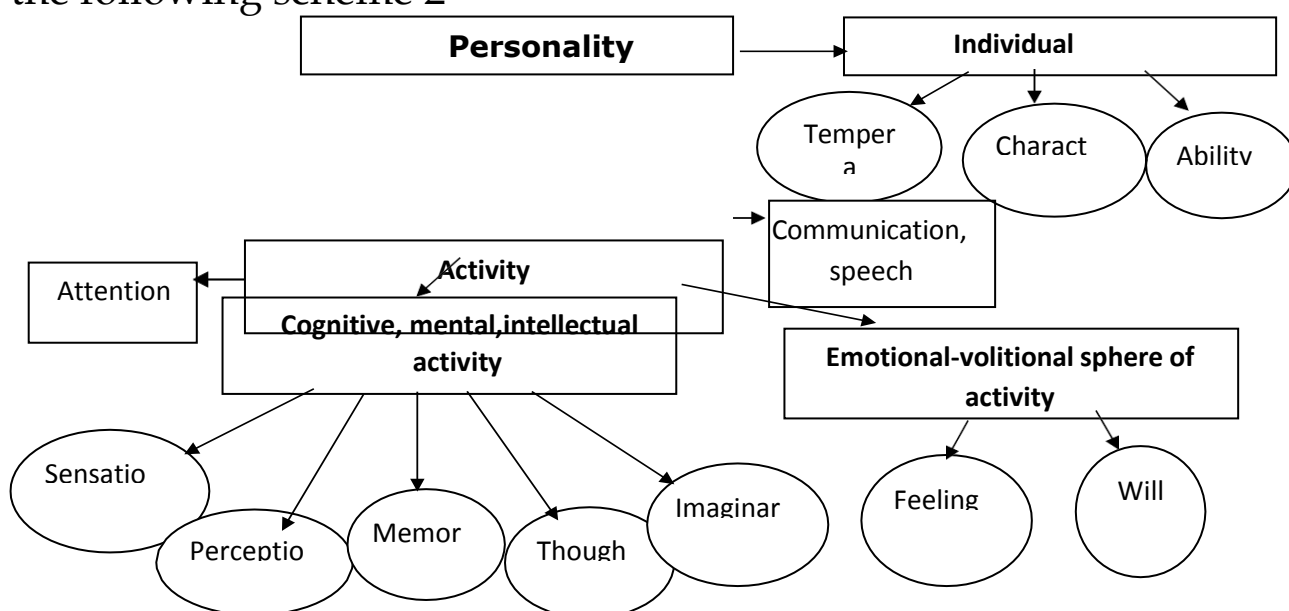
The unconscious and preconscious play a much more significant role in a person's daily life than it seems at first glance. It should be borne in mind that consciousness is much less re-

sistant to stress factors compared to the unconscious and sub-conscious. In a situation of danger to life, conflict, under the influence of alcohol, etc. the influence of consciousness on human actions is reduced.

§ THE SUBJECT AND TASKS OF PSYCHOLOGY AS A SCIENCE

Thus, as we now know, psychology is a science that studies facts, patterns and mechanisms for the manifestation and development of the psyche as a special form of life activity.

The structure of psychological science can be represented as the following scheme 2



Scheme 2 Structure of psychological science

Psychology is a science of the facts, laws and mechanisms of the psyche, which is an image of reality formed in the brain, based on behavior and activities which controlled, having a personal and social character. The scientific study of the human mind and its functions, especially those affecting behavior in a given context. The psyche is a fundamental category in psychology. The psyche is defined as a property of highly organized biological matter, which reflects objective reality in the form of images and relationships, as well as in the form of muscular motor reactions. The main function of the psyche is to regulate and

manage the activities of the individual in his interaction with the outside world.

Psychology as a science has as its task the study and scientific explanation of psychic phenomena. After all, psychic phenomena, like all other phenomena of reality, are subject to certain laws. Psychology sets itself the task of revealing the patterns underlying the manifestation, formulation and development of psychological phenomena.

Knowledge of the laws of the psyche is necessary for managing its - manifestations, in particular, for the optimal organization of human activity, for the correct formulation of the matter of training and educating the younger generation.

In psychology, cognitive processes (mental or intellectual activity) are distinguished, aimed at a person's knowledge of the world around him.

This is, first of all, sensations - an elementary mental process, which is a subjective reflection in the form of mental phenomena, the simplest properties of objects and phenomena of the surrounding world, arising from the direct impact of these properties on the senses (color, sounds, smells, taste, touch, etc.).

This perception is a holistic reflection of objects, situations and events that occurs with the direct impact of physical stimuli on the senses.

This is our memory - the process of organizing and preserving past experience, making it possible to reuse it in activities, or return to the sphere of communication.

This is our thinking - the highest form of human mental activity, the most generalized and indirect form of reflection of the real world, establishing significant connections and relationships between objects, the process of cognition associated with the discovery of subjectively new knowledge, solving problems, with the creative transformation of reality.

Finally, cognitive processes include imagination - a mental process, a form of mental reflection, which consists in creating new images based on previously formed ideas. There are also

emotional processes (feelings), as well as volitional processes and actions.

Feelings are understood as a person's experience of attitude to objects and phenomena of reality, which is characterized by relative stability.

Volitional processes are the ability of a person, manifested in self-determination and self-regulation of activities and various mental processes. This is a process (state) of a person, manifested in his/her ability to consciously control psyche and actions. It also manifests itself in overcoming obstacles that arise on the way to achieving consciously set goals.

Psychic formations are products of mental processes. These are images of sensations, images of perceptions, representations (products of memory and imagination) and concepts.

Representations are images of previously perceived materials, images created by the imagination.

The concept is the highest mental image. It is formed on the basis of existing images of sensations, perceptions and ideas.

The concept reflects the essential properties, connections and relationships of objects and phenomena expressed by a word or a group of words. It is a product of thought.

The most essential and stable mental characteristics of a person (his/her needs, interests, abilities, temperament, character) are called mental properties of a person. Psychology, needs are understood as the state of the individual, created by the need he/she feels for the objects necessary for existence and development, and acting as a source of activity.

Interest is a form of cognitive need that ensures the orientation of the individual to the realization of the goals of activity and thereby contributes to orientation, familiarization with new facts, more complete and deeper reflection of reality.

Under abilities it is customary to understand the individual psychological characteristics of a person, which determine the degree of suitability of a person for a particular activity, which is a condition for the successful implementation of this activity,

features that determine the completeness, speed, ease, depth of acquisition of knowledge, skills, ease of mastering various types of activities.

Temperament is understood as a characteristic of a personality in terms of its dynamic features: intensity, speed, pace, rhythm of mental processes and states that characterize activity (energy, swiftness, speed, or, conversely, slowness, inertia) and emotionality of the personality (features of the flow of feelings and emotions, their quality).

The character of a person is a set of stable individual characteristics of a person, which develops and manifests itself in activity and communication, causing typical ways of behavior for it. Character is manifested in a person's attitude to activity (initiative, diligence, efficiency); to the things of the surrounding world (accuracy, thrift, generosity); to other people (tact, politeness, sensitivity) and to oneself (self-criticism, modesty, self-awareness, pride).

In addition to psychic processes and psychic properties of a person, psychology also studies psychic states.

Psychic states are a special characteristic of a person's mental activity over a certain period of time. Mental states are caused by external causes, the well-being of a person, his individual characteristics and affect his behavior during this period (the state of fatigue, absent-mindedness, irritability, activity, passivity, etc.).

The human psyche manifests itself, forms and develops in its activity. Under activity in psychology, it is customary to understand a dynamic system of interactions of the subject with the world, in the process of which the emergence and embodiment of a mental image and the realization of mediated relations of the subject in objective activity take place. Activity is a specifically human, consciousness-regulated activity, generated by needs and aimed at cognition and transformation of the external world and the person himself. It is possible to judge mental processes, mental states, mental properties of a person only by observing

and studying his activity.

Psychology studies various types of human activity (playing, learning, labor, creative), various aspects of activity (attention, skills as necessary conditions for any activity).

Attention is understood as the direction and concentration of a person's consciousness on certain objects, certain types of activity, while simultaneously distracting from others.

Skills are a formed, automated action that does not require conscious control and special volitional efforts to perform it.

The presence of the psyche is associated with external forms of organic life, the manifestation of the psyche is characteristic only of animals and humans. As already mentioned, the psyche is a property of the brain, a property that reflects the objective world in a special way. The psyche of animals is much simpler and more elementary than the psyche of man. The human psyche is qualitatively different from the psyche of animals.

Basic principles of psychology:

the principle of reflection means that the psyche is the result of the interaction of an individual with the surrounding material and social environment, its main function is to adapt it to the environment based on the processing of incoming information using the first and second signal systems; the principle of activity assumes that the features of interaction and adaptation of a person to the environment are determined by the features of its mental reflection, the person's attitude towards himself, other people and the world around him; the principle of determinism means the dependence of mental reflection on a large number of factors, including biological, natural, anthropogenic, socio-economic and many other obvious and hidden factors; the principle of the unity of the psyche, consciousness and activity means that behavior and activity are indispensable conditions for the emergence and formation of consciousness, forms of its activity and objects of application, etc. behavior in general and individual actions of a person are regulated by mental mechanisms; genetic principle (principle of development, historical

principle) means the constancy of qualitative and quantitative changes in the psyche, the adoption as an indispensable condition for understanding mental phenomena, consideration of the history of their development, the actual state and possible ways of change; the principle of a holistic, systematic approach assumes that mental processes, states, properties develop and function as a single whole, and therefore their understanding is possible only when considering and taking into account the fullness of the interconnections of individual mental phenomena, as well as with the external environment.

In psychology, a number of other principles are also actively used, but they are of a more particular nature.

Psychological reflection as a subject of psychology

The central concepts of psychology are "psyche" and "consciousness". In the process of development of psychological thought, the concept of "soul" was gradually forced out of the scientific vocabulary by the concept of "psyche".

At present, the psyche is understood as a systemic property of highly organized matter, which consists in the reflection of the objective world by the subject, in the construction by the subject of a picture of the world alienated from him and self-regulation on this basis of his behavior and activity.

As the owner of the psyche, a person is not unique. It is well known that animals at different stages of the evolutionary ladder of development also have a psyche, although it differs significantly in complexity and quality from the human psyche. Consciousness is a unique mental property that only a person possesses. Consciousness is understood as the highest form of mental reflection and self-regulation, experienced as a series of successive images and subjective experiences. The concept of "consciousness" is narrower than the concept of "psyche". In addition to consciousness, there are unconscious phenomena in the psyche.

The development of the psyche can be considered in two temporal aspects: as a phylogenetic process of improving adap-

tive mechanisms based on the gradual complication of higher mental functions that arise, are transmitted and consolidated from generation to generation; as an ontogenetic process, when the development of one organism repeats in a collapsed form the stages of species development, as a process of qualitative and quantitative changes aimed at; to improve individual, sometimes unique; ways to adapt to external conditions.

§ *BRANCHES OF PSYCHOLOGY*

Modern psychology is a complex system of various branches of this science that emerged in the process of its historical development, but are closely related to each other.

First of all, it is *general psychology* - studying the general patterns of manifestation and development of the psyche of animals and humans.

Further, it is possible to distinguish a number of branches of psychology:

a) Branches of psychology that study the psychological problems of specific activities:

1. *Psychology of labor* - exploring the psychological foundations of labor activity, professionally important personality traits in relation to a particular specialty, various problems of vocational guidance and professional selection, issues of the scientific organization of labor, the psychological foundations for increasing labor productivity, relationships in the workforce, etc.

2. *Engineering psychology* - investigating the issues of human interaction with a machine in conditions of high mechanization and automation of production, in various automated control systems (ACS). The activity of the operator managing various production processes is studied here in the most detail.

3. *Aviation psychology* - investigating the psychological issues of flight work, education and training of flight crews.

4. *Space psychology* - studying the issues of volitional and moral training of astronauts, the psychological substantiation of the methods of their training and training, psychological mani-

festations at the moments of maximum loads and the state of weightlessness, composes space professionograms that reflect the mental activity of astronauts at the start, in flight, work in outer space, when landing, R conditions of long-term isolation.

5. *Pedagogical psychology* - studying the psychological foundations of upbringing (psychology of upbringing) and education (psychology of education), questions of the relationship between the teacher and students; requirements for the personality of the teacher (psychology of the teacher), provides a rationale for rational methods of teaching and education, which ensures the management of mental activity and behavior of students, contributes to their mental development.

A special place is occupied by issues related to education in secondary specialized educational institutions (academic lyceums, vocational colleges), education in higher education, as well as educational work with abnormal children (in special schools).

6. *Medical psychology* - dealing with issues of communication between a doctor and a patient, the relationship of mental phenomena with the physiological structures of the brain (neuropsychology), issues of psychotherapy, psych hygiene (preservation of mental health), psych prophylaxis (working and living conditions), psychopharmacology (the effect of drugs on the human psyche), etc.

7. *Legal psychology* - studying problems related to the mental aspects of the investigation, analysis of testimonies, requirements for interrogation (forensic psychology).

Also, the psychological characteristics of the personality of the criminal, the motives of the crime (criminal psychology), and the psychological foundations of the re-education of criminals (correctional labor psychology) are studied.

8. *Sports psychology* - studies the psychological foundations of the training and education of athletes, the patterns of development of sports skills and abilities, the behavior of athletes in competitive struggle, the formation of strong-willed and moral qualities necessary to achieve victory in sports competi-

tions.

9. *Military psychology* - examines the psychology of a person in a combat situation, in combat conditions, a high degree of danger, in conditions requiring a quick response, a high degree of responsibility for decisions made, issues of military training and education, relationships between commanders and subordinates. A special place is occupied by military engineering psychology (interaction between a soldier and military equipment).

10. *Psychology of trade* - studies the relationship in the "seller - buyer" system, the psychological foundations of advertising, fashion psychology, etc.

11. *Psychology of art* - considers the psychological components of the activity aimed at creating works of art, the patterns of human perception of these works, the patterns of the emergence and flow of various feelings caused by works of art, issues related to aesthetic education and the development of musical, artistic, literary abilities.

12. *Psychology of scientific creativity* - studies the psychological characteristics of scientific activity, the characteristics of a creative personality, the role of intuition and inspiration in creativity.

Probably, with the advent of new, not yet existing types of activity, new branches of the psychology of specific types of activity will appear.

b) Branches of psychology that study aspects of development:

Developmental psychology - studies the patterns of human mental development, the formation of various mental processes and mental properties of a person.

In developmental psychology, there are such divisions as child psychology (from birth to graduation from elementary school), adolescent psychology, youth psychology, adult psychology, and the psychology of old age (gerontopsychology). Age psychology reveals age-related features, establishes patterns of transition from one age to another, finding sensitive (most fa-

vorable) periods of formation of various mental properties of a person.

2. *Path-psychology* - studies the forms of violation of the normal, mental activity of people, various violations of normal mental development. This section of psychology includes *oligophren -psychology* , which studies the pathology of mental development associated with congenital defects of the brain, *tiflopsychology* - studies the psychology of blind or visually impaired people, *deaf psychology* - explores the psychological characteristics associated with hearing impairment (deaf and hard of hearing).

3. *Comparative psychology* (zoo psychology), studies the psyche of animals, especially higher animals, thereby revealing the prehistory of human consciousness.

4. *Acme-ology* - This is a special area of psychology that studies the high level of personality development at the stage of its maturity, the patterns of human development mechanisms at the stage of its maturity, and especially when it reaches the highest level in this development.

c) Branches of psychology that study the psychological aspects of the relationship between the individual and society:

1. *Social psychology* - studies the mental manifestations of various social communities - groups, collectives (their moods, public opinion, imitations), the nature of the relationship of people in groups and collectives, the position of the individual in them, problems of leadership and subordination, the psychological climate in groups, etc. He also studies mass psychological phenomena (in large groups of people) - social moods, competition, collective thinking, panic, etc.

2. *Psychology of personality* (differential psychology) - the study of the psychological characteristics of personality, typological and individual psychological differences of people.

3. *Ethno-psychology* - a branch of psychology that studies the ethnic characteristics of the human psyche, national character, national feelings, national identity, ethnic stereotypes, pat-

terns of these phenomena.

4. *Psychology of management* - a branch of psychological science that studies the psychological aspects of human management of various objects - government organizations, people, economic and technical systems, etc.

5. *Political psychology* - studies the psychological components of mood, opinions, feelings, value orientations and the political life of society (political education, public consciousness, the psychology of ideological influences, the political activity of the masses, etc.).

6. *Marketing psychology* - studies the psychological problems of managing and organizing the activities of enterprises and firms in the development of new products, production and marketing of goods or services based on changes in the market. Studies demand, pricing issues, advertising psychology, sales promotion, assortment planning.

7. *Psychology of religion* - studies the psychological and socio-psychological factors that determine the characteristics of religious consciousness, its structure and functions, the specifics of religious feelings, the psychological functions of religion in the spiritual life of society, the psychology of a religious cult, the psychology of religious groups, etc. Also studies the mechanisms of communication, imitation, suggestion, relationships and their influence on the consciousness, feelings, behavior of people and the role of religion in modern society.

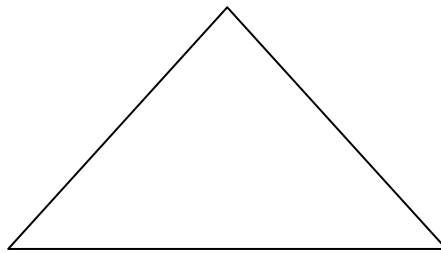
These are the main directions of modern psychological science. However, modern psychology is also characterized by the establishment of ever closer ties with other sciences, as well as between branches of psychological science itself. This is how such branches of psychology appeared as psychophysics, psychophysiology, psycholinguistics, mathematical psychology, etc.

The interdisciplinary connections of psychological science also determine its place in the system of sciences.

According to the classification of sciences (BM Kedrov), all sciences are divided into three groups: humanitarian, philosoph-

ical and natural sciences. As for psychology, B. M. Kedrov believes that between all three main sections of science is psychology as an independent science that studies the mental activity of a person from the natural-historical and social side. The place of psychology in the system of sciences (according to B.M. Kedrov) can be represented as the following scheme 3.

Natural Sciences



Humanitarian sciences. Philosophical Sciences

Scheme 3. The place of psychology in the system of sciences

Psychology occupies an intermediate position here at the center of the triangle . Psychology is closely connected with the social sciences (philosophy, history, art criticism). The connection between psychology and natural science (physiology of higher nervous activity, technology) is inseparable.

Knowledge of psychology is necessary for the proper organization of the moral and intellectual self-education of a person. Psychology helps to understand one's own spiritual life, to understand oneself, to realize one's strengths and weaknesses, one's shortcomings. Purposeful behavior is built on this basis, helping to overcome and eradicate one's shortcomings and develop positive qualities. Knowledge of psychology opens up ways to improve mental activity: knowing how to improve your attention and memory, how to properly assimilate knowledge, organize intellectual activity more efficiently, you can achieve great results with the least amount of time and effort.

The 21st century that we have entered, in my opinion, is the century of the flourishing of psychological science, which will

take a leading place in the life of our society.

§ *METHODS OF PSYCHOLOGY*

As you know, every science has its own subject. The subject of psychology, as already mentioned in the first lecture, is the psyche, as a special property of highly organized matter (the brain), which consists in reflecting objective reality in the form of mental phenomena (processes, states, properties) and, on the basis of the formed image, the expedient regulation of the activity of the subject and his behavior.

At the same time, each science uses certain methods that allow you to know the patterns of the phenomena it studies. "The method holds the fate of research in its hands," said IP Pavlov. The system of methods is combined into a common methodology of science.

Methodology in a broad sense is the formulation of systematic and logically consistent methods of knowledge retrieval. It is concerned with the methods and procedures by which such knowledge and understanding is achieved. Most scientists tend to understand and use this term as equivalent to the concepts of scientific method, implying that the only acceptable methodology is scientific.

Methodology (from the Greek *methodos* - the path of research and knowledge, *logos* - concept, teaching) - is a system of principles and methods of organizing and constructing practical activities, as well as the doctrine of this system.

Methods - a set of methods and techniques for studying the psyche. "A method is a way of cognition, it is a way by which the subject of science is known" (S.L. Rubinstein).

The system of methods, as already mentioned, is united by the presence of a common methodology of science.

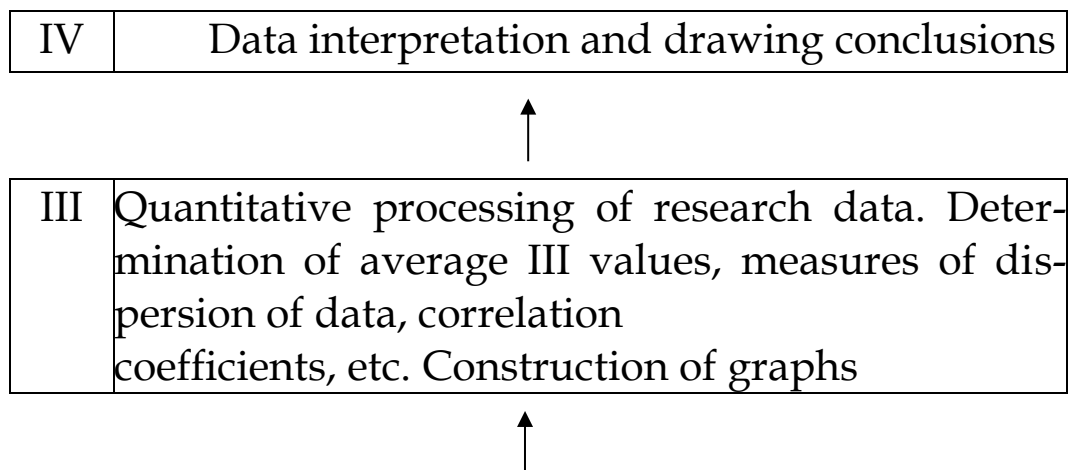
It should be pointed out that certain requirements are imposed on the organization of psychological research.

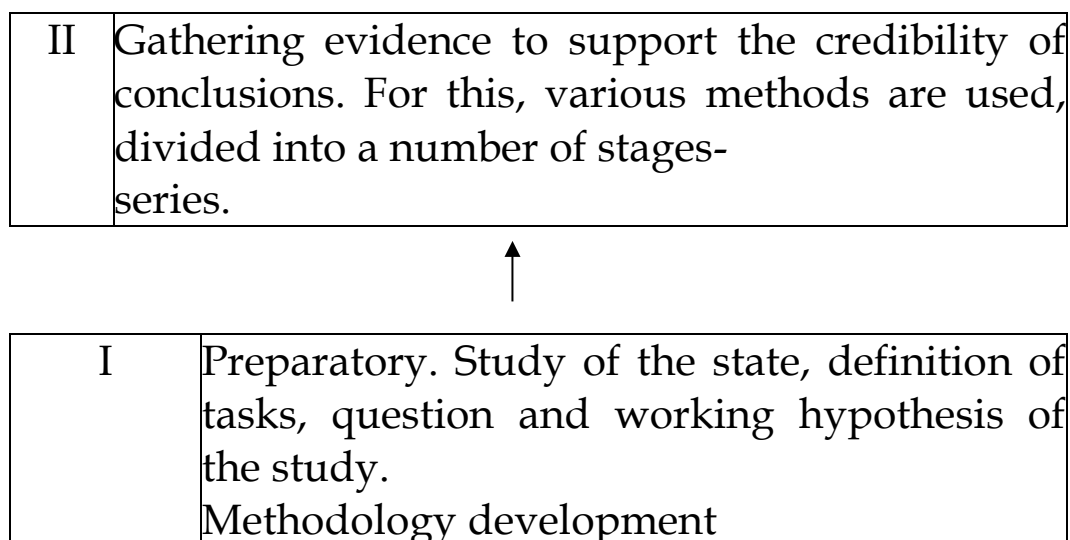
What are the requirements for the organization of psychological research?

1. Study planning. We are selecting and testing of methods and techniques. Consideration of all the diverse factors that affect the course and effectiveness of the activity to be investigated, drawing up a logical and chronological scheme of the study, choosing the contingent and the number of subjects for the required number of measurements, a plan for mathematical processing and describing the entire study.
2. Location of the study.
3. Technical equipment of the study, corresponding to the tasks being solved.
4. Selection of subjects (their qualitative homogeneity).
5. Researcher (experimenter). It inevitably affects the course of research at all its stages, from planning to conclusions and recommendations.
6. Instruction - it should be clear, concise and unambiguous.
7. Protocol - it must be complete and focused.
8. Processing of research results - quantitative and qualitative analysis and synthesis of the data obtained during the study.

Research is a complex organization. What are its stages and steps?

The stages of psychological research can be represented in the form of scheme 4.





Scheme 4. The stages of psychological research

Stages of psychological research (scheme 4) necessary to classify the methods of modern psychology. Academician B.G. Ananiev identifies four groups of methods in psychology:

I - organizational methods: they include a comparative method (comparison of different groups by age, activity, etc.); longitudinal method (repeated examination of the same subjects over a long period of time); an integrated method (representatives of different sciences participate in the study, while one object is studied by different means, for example, establishing a relationship between the physiological, psychological and social development of a person);

II - empirical methods: observation and self-observation, experimental methods, psycho-diagnostic methods (tests, questionnaires, questionnaires, sociometry, interviews, conversation); analysis of products of activity; biographical methods;

III - data processing methods, including: quantitative (statistical) and qualitative (differentiation of material by groups, analysis) methods.

IV - interpretative methods, including: genetic (analysis of the research material in terms of development with the selection of individual phrases, stages, critical moments) and structural (establishment of structural relationships between all personality characteristics) methods.

Let us consider in more detail the methods of psychological science:

1) Observation - a method of psychology, which consists in fixing the manifestations of behavior and obtaining judgments about subjective phenomena. Observation is usually carried out in natural conditions, without interference in the course of activities. Actions and words are recorded in detail and then analyzed. Scientific observation is characterized not only by the fixation of facts, but by the transition from its description to explanation. For such observation, it is necessary to have a clear plan. Recording (logging) can be continuous and selective. A continuous record is used when the personality as a whole is studied, selective - when only individual manifestations of mental activity are recorded:

a) continuous (in a phenomenon its beginning, development, completion is studied), discrete (intermittent; only individual manifestations are observed, a series of observations is carried out according to a certain plan), monographic (covers a set of interrelated, psychological phenomena), highly specialized (identification of any one a clearly limited phenomenon, a particular issue);

b) self-observation is one of the varieties of observation, the object of which are mental states, the actions of the subject himself.

Psychological observation does not always make it possible to reveal the essence of the phenomena being studied; one has to expect a random manifestation of these phenomena. Therefore, observation should be supplemented by other methods.

2) The main method of psychology is the experiment - the method of modern psychology, based on the exact accounting of variable independent variables that affect the dependent variable.

What are the benefits of an experiment? They are the following:

- the researcher does not expect a random manifestation

of mental processes of interest to him, but he himself creates the conditions to cause them in the subjects;

- the researcher can purposefully change the conditions and course of mental processes;
- in an experimental study, strict consideration of the conditions of the experiment (what stimuli were given, what are the responses) is mandatory;
- the experiment can be carried out with a large number of subjects, which allows you to establish the general patterns of development of mental processes.

For the first time, an experiment in psychology was carried out in the laboratories of W. Wundt (Germany) in the second half of the 19th century.

The study of the patterns of forgetting carried out in this laboratory by G. Ebbinghaus is a vivid example of such an experiment. The experiment is divided into laboratory and natural.

Laboratory experiment - a method of psychology, carried out in artificial conditions with strict control of all influencing factors. The disadvantage of a laboratory experiment is its certain artificiality, which cannot but be reflected in its results.

The natural experiment was first used in psychology by the Russian psychologist A.F. Lazursky in 1910. A natural experiment is a psychological experiment included in a game, labor or educational activity imperceptibly for the subject. In the experiment, the dependence between the means of influence and their results can be traced under precisely established and fixed conditions. At the same time, the researcher actively intervenes in the course of the studied phenomena and, knowing their essential properties, patterns, masters them. The essence of the experiment is characterized by the intentional introduction of fundamentally important changes into the process under study in accordance with the task of the study and its hypothesis.

A slice is a short-term statement of the state of the object under study at various stages of its development. Among psychological methods, transverse and longitudinal sections are dis-

tinguished.

Cross sections are reduced to comparing different groups of subjects, but do not allow taking into account individual characteristics and tracing whether certain personality traits are stable or change with age and how they are interconnected.

Longitudinal sections make it possible to trace the change in individual mental qualities in the same subjects over a long period of time, which ultimately helps to study the personality in its entirety (longitudinal method).

Longitudinal method (from English long - long) a study conducted by observing a number of subjects over a long period of time. For example, such a study of the development of generalization and mental activity of students from the 1st to the 8th grade of the school was conducted by the Uzbek psychologist N. Nigmatov.

In the future pedagogical activity, young specialists will have to conduct experiments (of a psychological-pedagogical type), so let's consider in more detail the scheme of such an experiment.

Consider other methods of psychology.

Questionnaire - a questionnaire for obtaining answers to a pre-set system of questions. Questionnaires can be open or closed. Open-ended questions usually do not limit the ways in which they can be answered. With closed answers, a choice of answers is given, for example, by underlining one of them ("yes", "no", "sometimes", etc.), the subject gives an answer to the question.

Conversation is one of the methods of psychology, which provides for direct or indirect obtaining of information through verbal communication. The results of the conversation (according to a well-thought-out plan and a questionnaire program) are recorded in the form of a free entry or pre-designed table maps.

The biographical method is the study of a person according to the available documents of her biography. This may be memoir literature (for example, "Memoirs of a Diplomat" by I.I.

Maisky, etc.).

Interview is a method of social psychology, which consists in collecting information obtained in the form of answers to the questions posed. The researcher in the interview asks questions, and the interlocutor (subject) only answers them.

Sociometry is a method of psychological study of interpersonal relationships in a group or team in order to determine the structure of relationships and psychological compatibility. The most developed method of sociometry is the method of J. More Sociometric test - a social rating test in which each member of the group is asked to choose which of the other members of the group he likes or dislikes, with whom he would like or not want to work, spend time, etc. The results of a sociometric analysis are usually depicted schematically as a sociogram.

Test - a standardized psychological test, as a result of which an attempt is made to evaluate a particular mental process or personality as a whole. The concept of a test was first introduced in 1890 by the American psychologist D. Cattell (1860-1944) in the article " Mind ".

In 1905, A. Binet and T. Simon created the first test of the intellectual abilities of schoolchildren.

In 1920, V. Stern (1871-1938) introduced IQ (" I-Q ") - the coefficient of mental endowment. In 1937, D. Veksler created an intellectual (multifaceted) test, consisting of a verbal one ("awareness", "general ingenuity", "reproducing numbers", "solving arithmetic problems", "establishing similarities" and "defining words") and a non-verbal part ("folding drawings and parts", "selection of missing parts" and "recoding words into a numerical code"). In 1943, G. Murray created the Minnesota multifactorial personality questionnaire (MMPJ) of 550 questions that define

14 profiles of personality traits. In 1987, the STUR test (school mental development test) was created under the leadership of K.M. Gurevich (Moscow). R. Catell's tests are also known - a quantitative assessment of 16 different personality traits (16-

factor questionnaire), Rorschach (projective test - ink spots) for studying the inclinations and motives of a person, Raven (for assessing mental activity), G. Eysenck (for intellectual development and assessment of abilities), creativity tests that study creativity and many others.

Tests can be individual and group, instrumental and blank. Analogy tests, association tests, achievement tests, proficiency tests, missing detail tests, sentence completion tests, memory tests, coding tests, dexterity tests, comprehension tests, ability tests, etc. are known.

First of all, we point out that for the effective use of tests, it is necessary to know about their validity, standardization and reliability.

Validity is the process of evaluating the extent to which a test actually measures what it is intended to represent.

Test standardization - whether the test was subjected to sufficiently thorough analysis, as a result of which an adequate set of norms was developed and an acceptable assessment of its reliability and validity was obtained.

Reliability in psychological testing is a general term used to refer to all aspects related to how trustworthy a test can be. The key concept here is consistency, the degree to which a test produces approximately the same results when used repeatedly under similar conditions.

Any psychological research can be successfully completed when precise criteria for recording and evaluating its results are developed.

All the experimental material collected in the course of the study is subjected to a qualitative analysis, which allows us to make initial generalizations. But in order to ensure the objective nature of the theoretical conclusions of the study, it is necessary to combine a qualitative analysis with a quantitative processing of the obtained materials.

Great opportunities for evaluating the results of the study are provided by the use of mathematical (statistical) methods.

However, it should be emphasized that statistics can only record, for example, reliable differences between two or more studied phenomena, but cannot completely reliably explain the reasons for these differences, reveal the qualitative essence of the studied phenomena.

Mathematical statistics is used in psychology, first of all, in order to compare in a general way the results of certain sets of studied phenomena.

Statistical methods can be used to determine, for example, how closely students' grades are concentrated around the average grade of the class, but statistics do not consider the essence of grades.

The methods of probability theory and variation statistics contribute to the study of phenomena that are formed under the influence of a large number of various factors (correlation, factor analysis, etc.).

Correlation analysis is the establishment of a relationship between two or more variables, in which a systematic increase in the value of one variable is accompanied by a systematic increase or decrease in the value of the other. The presence of such a statistical relationship is traditionally used as a basis for guessing about the expected value of one variable given the known value of the other.

The stronger the correlation (i.e., the correlation coefficient obtained is higher than zero), the higher the confidence in the accuracy of the assumption.

Factor analysis is a method of multidimensional mathematical statistics used in the study of statistically related features in order to identify a certain number of factors hidden from direct observation.

A large place in psychological research is occupied by the method of theoretical modeling. Its essence lies in the fact that as a result of a preliminary study of the subject of research and the accumulation of the necessary information about it, some significant features, components of the structure are distinguished,

significant "connections and interdependencies between them are established.

As a result, a theoretical model of the subject of research is built, which is then tested in an experiment. The method of theoretical modeling is used in the study of various types of activities, the process of formation of personality relationships.

At the beginning of the 20th century, electrical devices, many types of modern equipment, including radio, video, and electronic equipment, including computers, began to be widely used in psychological research and psychological laboratories.

An illustration of cybernetic modeling is the use in modern psychology of the ideas of mathematical programming on a computer. This led to attempts to represent and describe human behavior, his psychology by analogy with the operation of electronic computing devices (American scientists D. Miller, Y. Galanter, K. Prioram). Finally, it should be noted that the results obtained in psychological research must be interpreted in a certain way. Such an interpretation, explanation, translation into a more understandable language of the data obtained is an interpretation of the results of the study.

Review questions:

1. What does psychology study?
2. Psychic processes, psychic formations, psychic states, psychic properties and their characteristics.
3. The main branches of modern psychological science.
4. The value of psychological science in the life of society.
5. Explain the meaning of the terms - "method" and "methodology".
6. What are the main stages of psychological research?

PROBLEM OF PERSONALITY IN PSYCHOLOGY AND PEDAGOGY. PERSONAL ACTIVITY. INDIVIDUAL PSYCHOLOGICAL CHARACTERISTICS.

§ PROBLEM OF PERSONALITY IN PSYCHOLOGY

First of all, consider the concepts of "individual", "personality" and "individuality".

An individual is a single person, in the aggregate of all his inherent qualities - biological, physical, social and mental. A person is born as an individual, and is formed as a person. Personality is considered in psychology as a subject and object of social relations.

There are a number of definitions (up to 50) of personality by various psychologists. Here are some of them:

"Personality is the subject and object of social relations" (A.G. Kovalev).

"Personality is a set of internal conditions through which external actions are refracted" (S.L. Rubinshtein).

Of the numerous definitions of personality proposed during the experimental period of developing the problem of personality, the most successful was the one given by the American psychologist G. Allport (1897-1967):

"Personality is an individually unique set of psychophysiological systems that is formed in vivo - personality traits that determine thinking and behavior that is unique for a given person."

Thus, we can say that a person is a member of society, it is a dynamic organization of those psycho-physiological systems within an individual that determine his characteristic behavior and thinking.

Individuality is a peculiar combination of individual properties of a person that distinguishes him from other people. "Individuality is a personality in its originality."¹

This is what this or that person differs from others: features of the intellect, feelings, will and other psychological properties

of the person, which inevitably manifest themselves in activity. It allows you to identify creative possibilities, a measure of social activity, originality of the individual, which have a special impact on society.

What is necessary for a person, having been born as an individual, to form as a personality?

This requires several conditions;

1. Sociality. An individual is formed as a person, first of all, in social conditions, in a society of his own kind, i.e. in human society.

What can the human brain give outside the conditions of life and society peculiar to people?

At the beginning of the 20th century, the Indian physician Reed Singh received news that two mysterious creatures resembling people, but moving on all fours, were seen near a village. They were tracked down. One morning, Singh, at the head of a group of hunters, hid at the wolf's hole and saw how the she-wolf took her cubs for a walk, among which were two girls

- one about eight, the other - one and a half years old. Singh took the girls with him and tried to raise them. They ran on all fours, got frightened and tried to hide at the sight of people, snarled, howled like wolves at night.

The youngest, whose name was Amala, died a year later. The eldest, named Kamala, lived to the age of seventeen. For nine years, they managed, basically, to wean her from wolf habits, but still, when she was in a hurry, she fell on all fours.

Kamala essentially never mastered her speech - with great difficulty she learned to use only 40 words correctly.

It turns out that the human psyche does not develop outside the human environment.

2. Mastery of consciousness (a body of knowledge about the surrounding world, the development of self-awareness, the formation of goals of activity, inclusion in certain relationships - the world of feelings).

3. Activity aimed at achieving the goals of the activity.

Man like Homo sapiens (a reasonable person), is the carrier of the most highly organized nervous system and, consequently, a qualitatively changed activity.

Human activity at the level of personality is capable of subjugating the environment, making it serve its goals, consciously transforming it in the process of activity.

What stimulates the active participation of the individual in life, in activities? What determines her behavioral acts? In other words, what is the source of personality activity?

4. Needs are the source of personality activity. First of all, the development of spiritual, cultural needs and needs for self-improvement. Needs - a reflection in the mind of a person of a certain need for an object or phenomenon. Psychologists distinguish the following main groups of needs - natural, material and cultural, spiritual, social. Satisfaction of natural and material needs ensures the existence of man and animals.

Personality describes the unique patterns of thoughts, feelings, and behaviors that distinguish a person from others. A product of both biology and environment, it remains fairly consistent throughout life.

Examples of personality can be found in how we describe other people's traits. For instance, "She is generous, caring, and a bit of a perfectionist," or "They are loyal and protective of their friends."

The word "personality" stems from the Latin word persona, which refers to a theatrical mask worn by performers to play roles or disguise their identities.

Although there are many definitions of personality, most focus on the pattern of behaviors and characteristics that can help predict and explain a person's behavior.

Explanations for personality can focus on a variety of influences, ranging from genetic effects to the role of the environment and experience in shaping an individual's personality.

Fundamental characteristics of personality:

Consistency: There is generally a recognizable order and

regularity to behaviors. Essentially, people act in the same way or in similar ways in a variety of situations. Both psychological and physiological: Personality is a psychological construct, but research suggests that it is also influenced by biological processes and needs. Personality not only influences how we move and respond in our environment, but it also causes us to act in certain ways. He affects behaviors and actions.

§ *ACTIVITY*

Modern scientific psychology considers the activity approach to the study of the psyche as one of its main principles. In order to reveal the essence of this principle, it is first necessary to define what activity is in general.

In its most general form, activity is understood as the activity of a living organism aimed at satisfying its needs. It should be noted that in animals this activity is purely adaptive, biological in nature. Therefore, the term "activity" can be applied to the activity of animals only conditionally more precisely this activity can be defined as "life activity".

Actually, activity is a specifically human activity regulated by consciousness, generated by needs and aimed at the knowledge and transformation of the external world and the person himself. The problem of activity is directly and organically connected with the problem of personality and consciousness. Personality is formed and manifested in its activities. To live means to act. Real human life is a system of successive activities.

Activity is a process of human interaction with the environment (natural and social), but the process is not passive, but more or less active, regulated by consciousness. Human activity is regulated not directly by needs, as happens in animals, but by a conscious goal.

Human activities are varied. Taking into account the results of activity, it is traditionally customary to divide it into practical and theoretical.

Each activity implements certain ideas, requires control and

regulation, and the most brilliant ideas acquire social value only as they are implemented in activities. In fact, any activity includes both internal and external components (action plans).

In various types of activity, their quantitative ratio changes, but always the ability to act “in the mind”, the internal component (mental plan of action) plays a leading role.

This is the qualitative originality of human activity. Genetically, i.e. in its origin, internal (mental-psychic) activity is derived from external (objective).

The child initially performs objective actions and only then, as experience accumulates, does he acquire the ability to perform the same actions in his mind. This process of converting external (objective) actions into internal (mental) actions is called internalization (from Latin interior - internal). However, action is in the mind directed, in the end, outward, to the transformation of objective reality, they themselves undergo the reverse transformation. The process of transition of internal (mental cognitive) action plans to external (objective) ones, implemented in the form of techniques and actions with objects, is called exteriorization (from Latin exterior - external).

With all the variety of specific activities in each of them, it seems possible to single out some common structural components. This is the goal, motives, actions, operations.

Structure (from Latin structure - structure, arrangement, order) - a set of stable connections of an object that ensure its integrity and identity to itself,

i.e. preservation of basic properties during various external and internal changes.

Consider the structure of activity. This goal is something that realizes a human need and acts as an image of the final result of an activity (build a house, graduate from a university, solve a problem, etc.). But, having determined the purpose of the activity, the question of why a person does this cannot be considered resolved.

A motive is what, firstly, encourages a person to act and,

secondly, gives the activity specific features in relation to the choice of means and ways to achieve the goal. Motives can be needs, interests, emotions and feelings, beliefs and ideals, attitudes and habits. Both goals and motives are close and distant, personal and public.

Actions are a relatively completed element of activity aimed at achieving a certain intermediate goal and subordinate to the general motive of activity. As actions in the educational activity of a student, for example, listening to lectures, performing laboratory and test work, etc. can be named. Each action consists of a system of movements or operations subordinate to a task that is being solved under certain specific conditions.

An analysis of object movements shows that they all consist of three relatively simple ones: take (raise), move, lower.

In technology, it is also customary to distinguish other types of movements: speech (movements of speech organs in various types of speech); semantic (mouth movements, raising hands during voting, negative and affirmative head movements, handshakes, etc.); expressive movements, etc. facial expressions and pantomime as expressions of emotion; locomotor movements, etc. movements arising from the movement of the human body in space (features of gait, posture, etc.).

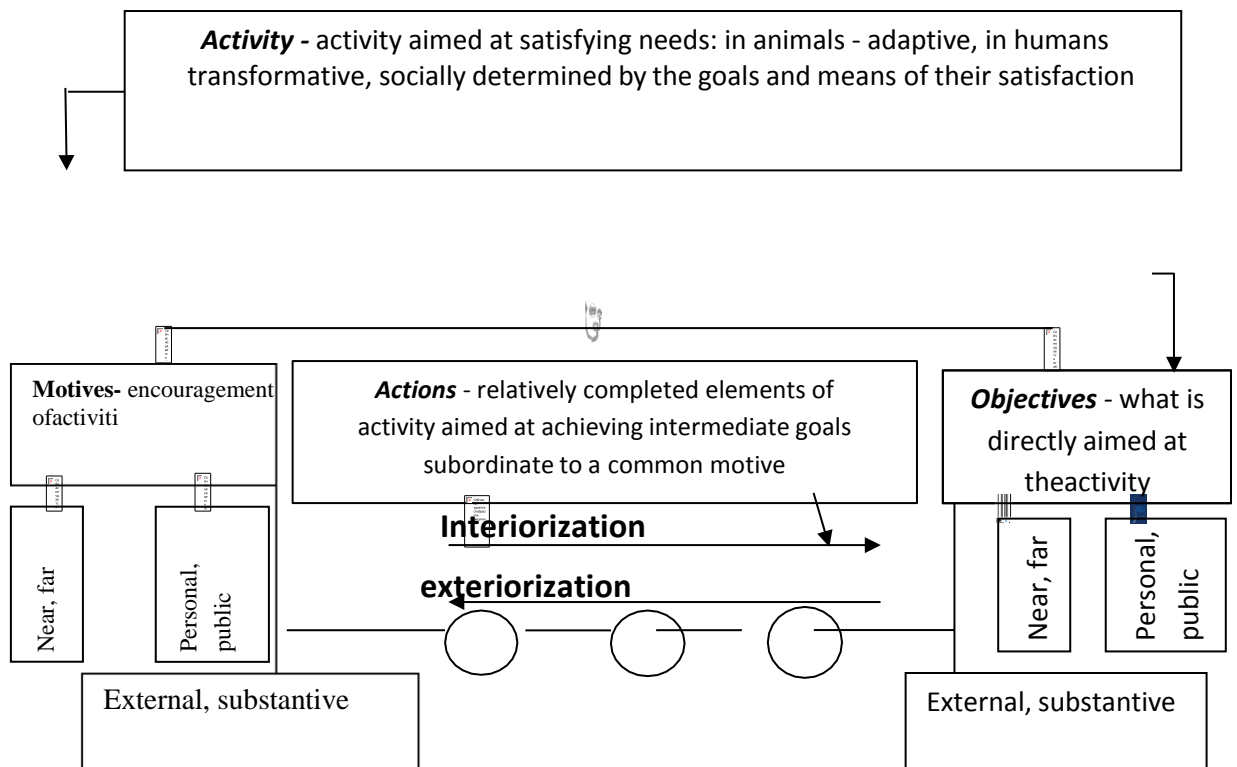
In modern psychology, mental actions are distinguished as follows: perceptual (through which a holistic image of the perception of objects or phenomena is formed); mnemonic (they are part of the activity of memorizing, memorizing and recalling any material); mental (of which the solution of mental problems consists).

An analysis of the structure of activity shows that it is carried out with a conscious reflection of the surrounding world.

In any activity, a person, to one degree or another, is aware of the purpose of his actions, imagines the expected result, perceives and evaluates the conditions in which he acts, considers the sequence of operations, establishes and maintains his attention, makes volitional efforts, monitors the course of activity and

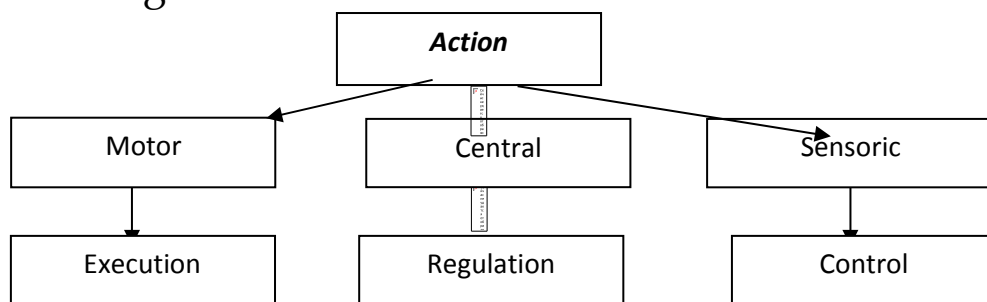
its intermediate results, experiences successes and failures. The mechanisms of planning, control and regulation of actions were studied by a number of physiologists and psychologists - P.K. Anokhin, N.A. Bernstein, E.A. Hasratyan, W. Ashby and others.

Activity structure



Scheme 1. Activity structure

The action components and their functions are shown in the following scheme 2



Scheme 2: Action components and their main functions

§ SKILLS AND ABILITIES, PATTERNS OF THEIR FORMATION

Every activity can be done in different ways. The methods of performing the actions that make up this type of activity are called methods of action. In order to understand in detail the processes of mastering activities, it is necessary to understand two initial concepts - "skills" and "abilities".

A skill is an automated way of performing an action, formed in the course of exercises. From the physiological point of view, skill means the formation in the cerebral cortex of the cerebral hemispheres and the functioning of a stable system of temporary nerve connections (dynamic stereotype). The development of dynamic stereotypes creates conditions under which, simultaneously with an automated act, a more complex analytical and synthetic activity can be carried out. As a result of the exercise, a person develops not only skills, but also skills.

Skills are ways to successfully perform actions that correspond to the goals and conditions of these actions. Skills, being ways of action that correspond to the purpose and specific conditions of action, always based on knowledge. The better a person knows the matter, the sooner he acquires the necessary skills and the more perfectly he will use them.

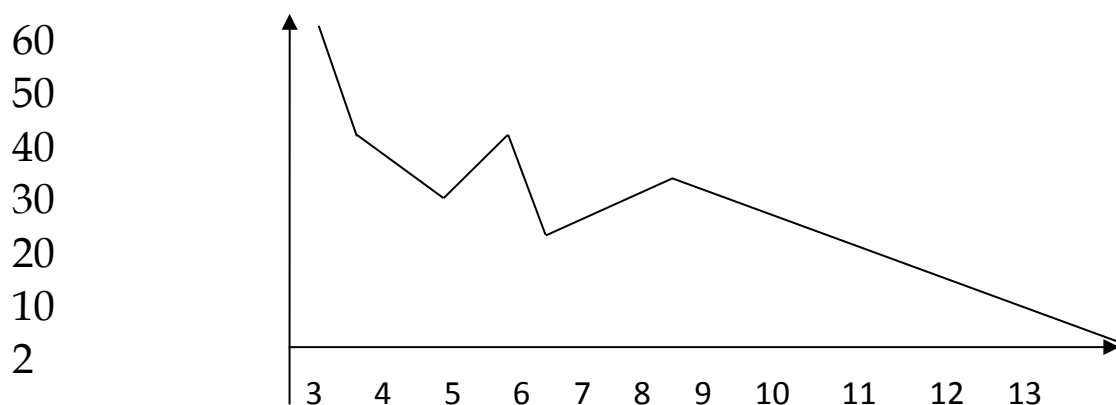
Skills and abilities, being ways of action, are always included in specific activities. Therefore, it is quite acceptable to divide them by type of activity into household, educational, industrial, sports, organizational skills in the field of art, scientific activity, technical activity, etc. But there are skills and abilities that people use in different activities. These are motor, sensory and mental skills and abilities. Motor skills include all physical labor skills, most sports and some learning skills (graphic writing skills, fluent reading).

Sensory skills and abilities include measuring, quick and accurate perception of light, sound and symbolic information on control panels, etc.

To mental (intellectual) - various methods of observation,

planning, the ability to quickly make oral and written calculations, navigate the terrain and on the map, work with a book, collect archival data, set up a scientific experiment, etc.

Skills are formed as a result of exercises, i.e. purposeful and systematic repetitions, leading not only to consolidation, but also to the improvement of actions through the assimilation of more and more effective techniques. The course of skill development is expressed as "exercise curves".



Scheme 3. Skills development

As can be seen from the graph, the decrease in errors occurs unevenly. The graph shows the steepness of the decline and rise of the curve, which indicates how quickly and successfully the exercise is going.

In the curves of the exercise, the so-called plateau is often observed. This is a delay in the growth of academic performance or the fall of negative moments (in the form of a segment of a horizontal line). In our case, 4-5 exercises.

There are three main stages in the formation of a skill - analytical, synthetic and automation. Some researchers also distinguish an introductory stage.

The introductory stage is the comprehension of the necessary actions, the creation in the mind of a kind of indicative basis.

Analytical - conscious, but insufficiently skillful performance of the action, the goal is to master the individual elements of the action and analyze the methods of this performance.

Many unnecessary movements are allowed, the state of a person is tense, constrained, attention is entirely directed to actions, and the level of control is low.

Synthetic stage - the elements of the action are combined and combined, there is a combination of private operations, the replacement of individual actions with more complex ones, and unnecessary movements are eliminated. Control changes (for example, visual control is replaced by muscular control).

Automation stage - there is flexibility in the use of actions depending on the specific situation. This is mastering the conscious regulation of the nature of the action. Actions are performed accurately, quickly, adequately. Control occurs at the level of sensory and intellectual syntheses.

Skills and abilities acquired by a person affect the formation of new skills. Patterns:

1) Unevenness of the process of skill formation. This is clearly demonstrated in the curves of the exercise (a graphic representation in the form of a curve for the success of the actions being mastered when they are repeated), which is clearly seen in the figure above.

2) Transfer of skills. The positive influence of a strengthened skill on the formation of a new one is called transfer. The negative influence of one skill on the formation of another is called interference, in which the old skill interferes with the formation of a new one.

3) Progress and regression of skill. In order to maintain a skill for a long time, it must be used systematically. Otherwise, de-automation occurs: the corresponding action loses speed, ease, smoothness, accuracy and other qualities characteristic of automated actions.

That's a few words about habits.

Habits are called such actions and deeds that are performed as if by themselves, automatically. The role of habits in the cultural and moral behavior of a person is especially great.

The main activities are work, study, play.

Labor is an activity in the process of which material and spiritual values are created. Labor is the most important condition for the existence and development of mankind, as well as the mental development of each individual.

Teaching is a kind of preparatory stage for labor activity, at the same time the main activity of students. It is aimed at acquiring knowledge, developing certain skills and abilities, and acting for the student as a conscious goal. Now in developed countries from 20 to 30% of a person's life is devoted to "pure" teaching.

At the same time, when moving from teaching to practical activity, either in the field of science or in the field of modern production, a person is kept at the level of his time only if he continuously works on himself, i.e. continues learning activities independently. And this means that one of the most important tasks of teaching at the present stage is the acquisition by students of the skills and abilities to systematically work on themselves, the constant improvement of their knowledge.

The implementation of this important task in our independent Republic is directed by the National Program for the Training of Personnel (1997).

Each period of a person's life is characterized by some type of activity that determines his mental development.

For preschool age, this type of activity is a game. In the game and through the game the child learns reality. Children's games always reproduce the behavior, activities and attitudes of adults.

Children's games arise and develop in interaction with adults. The earliest games of children are functional games. In these games with objects, the child reveals the properties of objects and how to act with them.

On the basis of these games, constructive games arise in which the child comprehends the purpose of objects, masters the ability to create something according to a previously known pattern.

In the role-playing games that arise at the age of 3-4, the

child masters the relationship between people. Games acquire a stable group character and division of functions. As the role-playing game develops, children more and more obey pre-established rules. Taking on this or that role, the child takes possession of the rights and duties of people who perform certain functions in society.

Thus, in the game with certain exercises, the reality of real relationships and activities is reproduced, which allows the child for the first time to become the subject of activity himself.

The educational value of games is preserved throughout a person's life (sports games, board games, etc.). Only, probably, for an adult, the game makes it possible to get a certain pleasure. A person who loses several games of chess stops the game, because defeat does not give an opportunity to enjoy.

And, finally, we point out that at different periods of a person's life, certain types of activity become leading. Under the leading activity in psychology is understood such a type of activity in which qualitative changes in the personality are formed in a given period (role-playing at preschool age, teaching at primary school age, communication in learning and work in adolescence, educational and professional activities in adolescence).

§ NEEDS. TYPES OF NEEDS

A need is a state of an objective need of the human body for something that lies outside it and constitutes a necessary condition for its normal functioning. This state of the individual, created by his need for objects necessary for his existence and development, is precisely the source of human activity. The need, as a dynamic force emanating from the body, organizes and directs the cognitive processes, imagination and behavior of the individual. Needs do not remain unchanged, but change and improve depending on the growth of a person's general culture, his knowledge of reality and attitudes towards it.

It is believed that the specificity of human needs is determined by the social nature of human activity, primarily labor.

Needs are distinguished by subject and by origin.

By origin, the needs are: *natural*; *cultural*.

Natural needs reflect the dependence of a person on the conditions necessary to preserve and maintain his life. Cultural needs express man's dependence on the products of human culture.

According to the subject of need are divided:

- material
- spiritual
- social

The material ones include physiological (for example, the need for food) and socially conditioned (for example, the need for clothing). Spiritual needs include aesthetic and cognitive. Social needs reflect the need for communication, for social recognition.



Many authors have created registers of needs, consisting of many items. For example, W. McDougall (1923), who understood needs as instinct-like, ready-made ways of responding, singles out: food production, disgust, sexuality, fear, curiosity, patronage, communication, self-affirmation, submission, anger, seeking help, creation, accumulation, laughter; rest and sleep, comfort, movement; "primitive" tendencies - coughing, sneezing, breathing, etc. The classification of F. Lersh (1938) includes 18

needs (the author calls them "stimulating experiences"). In his work *Motivation and Personality* (1954), Maslow suggested that all human needs are innate and that they are organized into a hierarchical system of priority or dominance, consisting of five levels. The pyramid is as follows:

1. Physiological needs (food, water, sleep, etc.)
2. The need for security (stability, order, dependence, protection, freedom from fear, anxiety and chaos)
3. Need for love and belonging (family, friendship, inner circle, reference group)
4. Need for respect and recognition (I respect myself, others respect me, I am known and needed. 1: I achieve, 2: prestige and reputation, status, fame)
5. The need for self-actualization (development of abilities. A person should do what he has inclinations and abilities for)

Later, in other works, A. Maslow sometimes added two more levels: the level of cognitive abilities and the level of aesthetic needs.

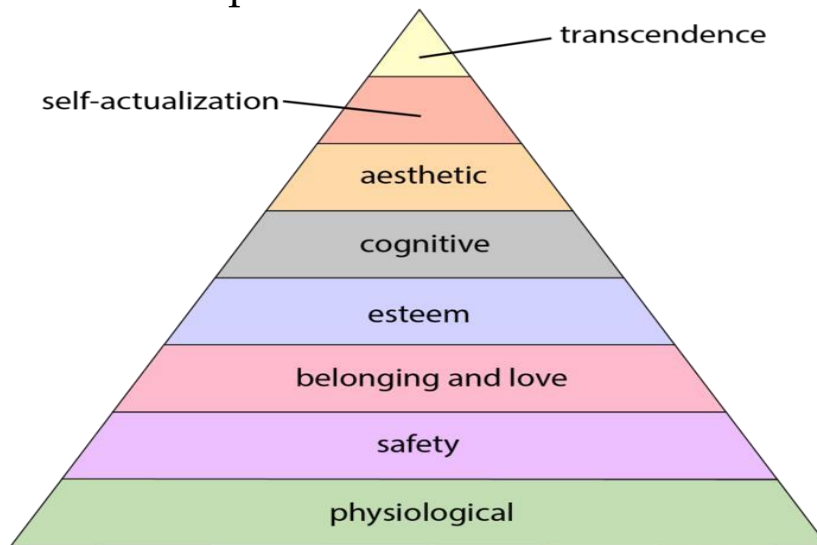
According to A. Maslow, the needs of one type must be fully satisfied before another need, of a higher level, manifests itself and becomes valid. Another pattern observed by Maslow is that when simpler needs are satisfied, a person begins to reach out to a need of a higher order. At the same time, Maslow himself noted that there are often exceptions to this rule: for some people, the need for self-actualization may be more important than the need for love, just as some people stop at the level of lower needs, not being interested in higher needs, even when lower needs seem to be satisfied. According to Maslow, all such violations of the normal development of a person occur as a result of the development of a neurosis or in a situation of severely unfavorable external circumstances.

What is the meaning of Maslow's pyramid?

Marketers often criticize Maslow's pyramid: and in vain. Why? Marketers took a reasonable psychological theory and

tried to apply it in marketing (where it was not created for), and when it didn't work, they accused Maslow that his theory was "absurd", "outdated", "does not work for us".

At the same time, A. Maslow's view of the top of his pyramid, that the need for self-actualization is the highest value of human life, seems pedagogically controversial. Perhaps for a person as an organism this is true, but for a person as a person there are other views on the main life values and peaks of personal growth and development.



§ GENERAL CONCEPT OF MOTIVE AND MOTIVATION

Among all this diversity, there is a position that relatively unites all interpretations.

Definition 1. Motive is: • motivation for activity, which is associated with the satisfaction of the needs of the subject; a set of external and internal conditions that cause the activity of the subject and determine its direction (that is, motivation);

- an object (can be both material and ideal), which induces and determines the choice of the direction of activity (that is, for what it is carried out);
- perceived reason, which is the basis for the choice of actions / actions of a person.

The motive answers the question "What is needed to satisfy the need?" That is, it is psychologically real, stimulating/guiding activity, giving it a personal meaning. The motive

refers to the person who applies it to his activities. From the personal, he again passes into the motive of activity. In the psychological sense, the motive is understood as a subjective reflected reality, as well as a part of the mental image of the world that performs specific functions.

Definition 2. In a different way, the concept of "motive" is interpreted as the thoughts, feelings of the individual and her aspirations, which are associated with the awareness of one's needs that encourage activity.

This interpretation is based on the Latin word *movere*, which translates as "set in motion" or "push". In Anglo-American literature, in addition to motive (which, in fact, translates as "motive"), other concepts are used in the process of describing the need-motivational sphere of organisms:

- need - means "need/need state": this is how the state of objective need for some objects is indicated;
- drive - it is difficult to find an exact translation, therefore, simply "drive" is often used (especially among physiologists), approximately it can be explained as "aspiration", "experiencing a need state" and the like.

These concepts (need and experience) are not very familiar when considering physiological issues, since they are considered to refer to an individual who is aware of his needs and conditions, while animals do not have such awareness.

Definition 3. A motive is an impulse to activity, which is associated with the satisfaction of a need that has arisen; it can also be characterized as the reason that underlies the choice of actions and deeds.

Basic psychological functions of motive

The first function is that the motive produces a real motivation for activity - it launches it and provides energy. However, it is worth remembering that the concept of "induce" does not always refer exclusively to "induce" in reality, leading to the presence of activity. The personality actually has more motives/aspirations than active realizations of the expressed type.

Based on this, the general function of motivation is often divided into 2 stages:

- the presence of a potential selective aspiration - it does not necessarily lead to a formed activity, but it has its own psychological expression;
- realized motivation - this is the name most often chosen and started a certain activity.

The second function is to give direction to the activities carried out. After all, it is not enough just to launch and maintain its energy - it is necessary to conduct activities towards implementation. That is, it is a function of managing active processes and bringing them to the intended result. A. N. Leontiev argued that the activity is aimed at its own subject, which is the motive.

The third function is meaning formation that is bringing the motive to the subjective (personal) level. Subjective meaning is formed in activity, in the relationship of motive and purpose. Meaning is the answer to the question "Why does a person need an object of need and activity?" If the personality is developed, then this question often turns out to be decisive, therefore, the meaning-forming function from the psychological side occupies the main position. Man is a being that is oriented towards meaning. Therefore, if there is no convincing personal meaning, the motive will not work as a stimulus and the activity will not be produced. At the same time, the unrealized motive will remain.

Motivation

Motivation (from lat. "movere") - is an incentive to act; a dynamic process of a physiological and psychological plan that controls human behavior, determines its direction, organization, activity and stability; a person's ability to actively satisfy his needs.

Motivation is a set of motivating factors that determine the activity of the individual; these include motives, needs, incentives, situational factors that determine human behavior.

1. A set of motives that cause and determine the activity of an individual, i.e. a system of factors that determine behavior.

2. The process of education, the formation of motives, which stimulates and maintains behavioral activity at a certain level.

Motivation is one of the main driving forces of human behavior and achievement of goals.

Motivation explains the purposefulness of the action, the organization and sustainability of a holistic activity aimed at achieving a specific goal.

Motivational states of a person include interests, desires, aspirations, intentions, inclinations, passions, attitudes.

Types of motivation

- External motivation (extrinsic) - motivation that is not related to the content of a particular activity, but due to circumstances external to the subject.

- Internal motivation (intrinsic) - motivation associated not with external circumstances, but with the very content of the activity.

- Positive and negative motivation.

Motivation based on positive incentives is called positive. Motivation based on negative incentives is called negative.

Example: the construction “if I clean up the table, I will get candy” or “if I don’t mess around, I will get candy” is a positive motivation. The construction “if I put things in order on the table, then I will not be punished” or “if I do not indulge, then I will not be punished” is a negative motivation.

- Steady and unstable motivation.

Motivation that is based on the needs of a person is considered sustainable, since it does not require additional reinforcement.

Unstable is constantly requires additional reinforcement.

Also distinguish:

- individual motivations aimed at maintaining homeostasis: hunger, thirst, avoiding pain, striving for an optimum temperature, etc.

- group caring for offspring, finding a place in the

group hierarchy, maintaining the community structure inherent in this type, etc.

- cognitive
- exploratory behavior
- game activity

Human activity is directed not by one motive, but by their combination. In this case, internal motives and external motives can be distinguished.

At the heart of internal motives are the needs of a person, his emotions, interests.

§ PERSONALITY STRUCTURE

In the structure of personality, there is a complex interaction between its main components: temperament, orientation, character, abilities.

The structure of personality also includes mental processes and mental states. Natural and social in their interdependence and interdependence form a unity.

All Russian psychologists distinguish orientation as the leading component of personality structure.

Consider the most well-known ideas about the structure of personality.

A.V. Petrovsky identifies three components of the personality structure:

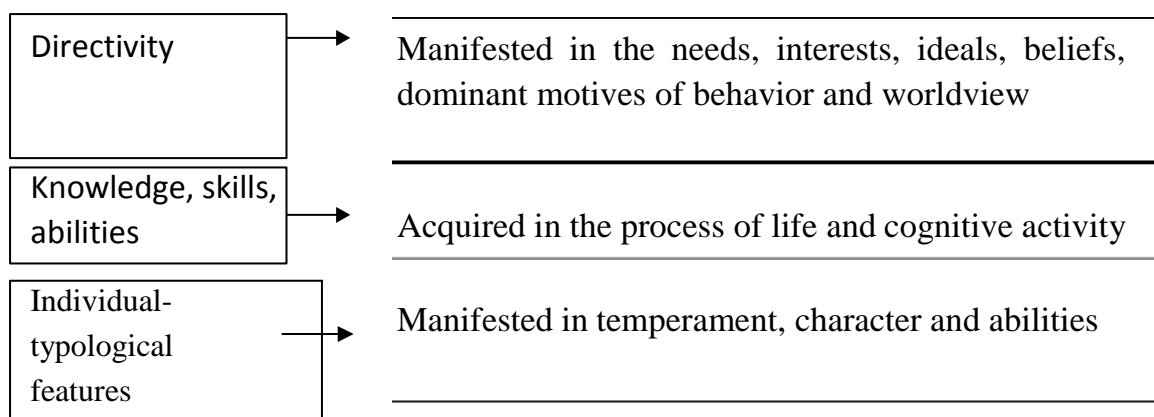
1) Intra-individual (intra-individual) subsystem - represented in the structure of temperament, character, abilities of a person, necessary, but not sufficient for understanding the psychology of personality.

2) The real existence of the personality is found in the totality of the objective, mediated by their activities, therefore one of the characteristics of the personality structure should be sought in the "space" outside the organic body of the individual - this is the inter-individual subsystem of the personality.

3) Supra-individual (meth-individual) substructure - the focus is on "contributions" to other people, which the subject

voluntarily or involuntarily makes through his activity. It is an active process of a kind of continuation of oneself in other not only at the moment of the subject's influence on other individuals, but also beyond the limits of direct interaction. This phenomenon is called personalization. Thus, according to A.V. Petrovsky, the structure of the personality includes three constituents, three subsystems: the individuality of the personality, its representation in the system of interpersonal relations and in other people, and the personality should be characterized in the unity of all three aspects of its existence, as a subject of inter-individual, social in origin relations and relations.

According to L.S. Rubinstein, the personality structure is as follows: (scheme 8)



Scheme 4. Personality structure L.S. Rubinstein

Personality is a set of stable motives that guide the activity of the personality and are relatively independent of the current situations.

The orientation of the personality is characterized by its interests, worldview, beliefs, aspirations and ideals of a person.

Interest is a form of manifestation of a cognitive need, which ensures the orientation of the individual to the realization of the goals of activity and thereby contributes to orientation, familiarization with new facts, a more complete and deeper reflection of reality.

Subjectively, interest is found in the emotional tone that the process of cognition acquires, in attention to the object of inter-

est. Satisfaction of interest does not lead to its extinction, but causes new interests that correspond to a higher level of cognitive activity. Interest in the dynamics of its development can turn into an inclination, as a manifestation of the need for implementation and activity that arouses interest.

Distinguish direct interest caused by the attractiveness of the object and indirect interest in the object as a means of achieving the goals of the activity.

The stability of interest is expressed in the duration of its preservation and its intensity. The stability of interest is evidenced by overcoming difficulties in the implementation of activities that in themselves do not cause interest, but the implementation of which is a condition for the implementation of an activity of interest to a person. An assessment of the breadth or narrowness of interest is determined by its content and significance for the individual.

Worldview is a system of a person's views on the objective world, on a person's attitude to the reality around him and to himself, as well as the main life positions of people, their beliefs, ideals, principles of knowledge and activity, value orientations due to these views.

Worldview is a reflection, a common understanding of the world, man and society, and a value attitude towards them, which determines the socio-political, philosophical, religious, aesthetic and scientific-theoretical orientation of a person. An important component of the worldview is also deals as decisive life goals. The content of consciousness turns into a worldview when it acquires the character of beliefs.

Persuasion is a conscious need of a person that encourages him to act in accordance with his value orientations.

The ideal is a model, something perfect, the highest goal of aspirations. The formation of ideals in the younger generation is one of the important tasks of education.

Aspiration is a primary motivation, a sensual experience of need, an attraction to an object. Depending on the measure of

awareness, aspiration as a dynamic tendency is expressed in the form of attraction and desire.

§ BASIC THEORIES OF PERSONALITY

Three periods can be distinguished in the history of personality psychology research: philosophical and literary, clinical and experimental. Philosophical and literary originates from the works of ancient thinkers (including thinkers of the East: al-Farabi, Abu Ali ibn Sino, Bobur, Omar Khayyam, Alisher Navoi) and continues until the beginning of the 19th century. In the first decades of the 20th century, problems of personality psychology along with psychiatrists began to be interested in philosophers and writers. In the first decades of the 20th century, professional psychologists began to study personality. The experimental period is associated with the names of such psychologists. Like A.F. Lazursky, G. Eysenck, G. Allport, R. Cattell and others.

At the end of the 30s of the 20th century, an active differentiation of directions in the study of personality began in psychology. There are about 50 such directions.

The classification of modern personality theories can be (according to five parameters) as follows:

I. Psychodynamic theories that describe the personality and explain its behavior in terms of its psychological, or internal, subjective characteristics.

II. Sociodynamic theories in which the main role in the determination of behavior is assigned to the external situation and does not attach significant importance to the internal properties of the personality.

III. Interactionist personality theories based on the principle of interaction of internal and external factors in the management of actual human actions.

IV. experimental theories of personality, built on the analysis and generalization of empirically collected factors. This type of theories includes structural theories, for which the main problem is to clarify the structure of the personality and the system

of concepts with which they should be described.

v. Non-experimental theories, the authors of which rely on life impressions, observations and experience and make theoretical generalizations without resorting to experiment. This group of personality theories includes dynamic theories, the main theme of which is transformation, change in the development of personality, i.e. her dynamics.

Based on this classification, the most famous personality theories should be considered:

1) The American psychologist G. Allport laid the foundations of a new theory of personality, called the "theory of traits", and another American psychologist, R. Cattell, gave an experimental character to personality studies conducted within the framework of the theory of traits. He introduced the method of factor analysis into the procedure of experimental personality research, singled out and defined a number of existing factors, or personality traits. He also developed one of the first personality tests, named after him (Kettel's 16 - factor test). With the help of this test, R. Kettel managed to identify 16 different personality traits.

Social learning theory, has become widespread. The main characteristic of a person in this theory is an act or a series of acts. A significant influence on a person's behavior, on his social actions is exerted by other people, support or condemnation on their part of his actions.

Psychoanalytic theory of personality developed by Z. Freud can be attributed to the type of psychodynamic, non-experimental, structural- dynamic, covering the whole life of a person and using to describe him as a person, the internal psychological properties of a person, primarily his needs and motives. Z. Freud compared human self-consciousness to the tip of the iceberg. He believed that only an insignificant part of what actually happens in a person's soul and characterizes him as a person is actually realized by him. Only a small part of his actions a person is able to correctly understand and explain. The

main part of his experience and personality is located in all spheres of consciousness, and only special procedures developed in psychoanalysis allow one to penetrate into it. According to Freud, the personality structure has three components: "It", "I" and "Super-I". "It" - the unconscious, including deep drives, motives and needs. "I" is consciousness. "Super-I" - is represented both on the conscious and subconscious levels. "It" operates in accordance with the so-called pleasure principle. The "I" is guided by the principle of reality, and the "Super-I" is guided by ideal ideas - the norms of morality and values accepted in society.

Humanistic psychology proposed their own approach to personality psychology. The main attention in this theory is focused on describing the structure and development of a person's inner experience in the form in which it is presented to the person himself in self-consciousness and thinking. Supporters of the humanistic theory of personality are primarily interested in how a person perceives, understands, and explains real events in his life. They prefer to describe the phenomenology of personality rather than seek its explanation, so theories of this type are sometimes called phenomenological. The most famous representatives of this approach to personality are the American psychologists A. Maslow and K. Rogers. K. Rogers in his theory of personality proceeded from the fact that every person has a desire, has the ability for personal self-improvement. The central concept for the theory of K. Rogers is the concept of "I", which includes representations, ideas, goals, values through which a person characterizes himself and outlines the prospect of his own development. A. Maslow defines the basic human need as self-actualization, the desire for self-improvement and self-expression. The concept of A. Maslow allows you to describe what requirements a self-actualizing person must meet in their behavior and relationships with others.

5) Russian psychologists (A.N. Leontiev, L.I. Bozhovich) conducted well-known studies of personality psychology. The theory of L.I. Bozhovich, relying on the concept of leading activity

and the social situation of development, introduced L.S. Vygotsky, reveals how a certain view of the world, called the internal position, is formed in the complex dynamics of interaction and interpersonal communication of the child during the periods of his life. This position is one of the main characteristics of the personality, a prerequisite for its development, which is understood as a set of leading motives of activity. A.N. Leontiev presented his concept of the structure and development of the personality, to which the central place is given to the development of activity. The main internal characteristic of the personality of A.N. Leontiev is the motivational side of the personality. Another important concept of A.N. Leontiev serves as "personal meaning". It expresses the attitude of the goals of human activity, i.e. to what it is directly directed at the moment, to its motives, what motivates it.

The wider, more diverse the types, activities in which the personality is included, the more developed and ordered they are, the richer the personality itself.

In recent decades, there has been a growing trend towards a synthesized holistic consideration of personality from the standpoint of different theories and approaches.

Crises of age formation according to E. Erickson

Erik Erickson's concept of "life crises", widely known in world psychology, gives an idea of another extremely important factor in a person's destiny - TIME. E. Erickson drew attention to the fact that a person in search of his "I" involuntarily must follow certain age standards - everything has its time. The lag in the passage of these crises (solving age-related problems) threatens with maladjustment, a decrease in professional success.

Stages of development	Normal line of development	Abnormal line of development
1. Early infancy (from birth to a year)	TRUST IN PEOPLE. Mutual love, affection, mutual recognition of parents and the child,	LACK OF PEOPLE as a result of the mother's mistreatment of the child, ignoring, neglecting him,
	satisfaction of the needs of children in communication and other vital needs.	deprivation of love. Too early or abrupt weaning of the child from the breast and his emotional isolation.
2. Late infancy (1 to 3 years old)	INDEPENDENCE, SELF-CONFIDENCE. The child sees himself as an independent, separate person, but still dependent on his parents.	SELF-DOUBTS AND HYPERTROFED SHAME. The child feels inadequate, doubts his abilities, Experiences deprivation, deficiencies in the development of elementary motor skills (for example, walking). Speech is poorly developed, a strong desire to hide their inferiority from the people around them.
3. Early childhood (about 3-5 years old)	ACTIVITY. Lively imagination active	PASSIVITY. Lethargy, lack of initiative, an infantile feeling of envy study of the surrounding
	world, imitation of adults,	towards other children and

	<p>inclusion in sex-role behavior.</p> <p>INDIVIDUALITY.</p> <p>A pronounced sense of duty and the desire for achievements, the development of cognitive and communicative skills.</p> <p>Setting and solving real problems, the focus of</p>	<p>people, depression, evasiveness, lack of signs of gender-role behavior.</p>
	<p>fantasy and play on the best prospects, the active assimilation of instrumental and objective actions, task orientation.</p>	
<p>4. Middle childhood (from 5 to 11 years old)</p>	<p>HARDWORKING</p> <p>A pronounced sense of duty and the desire for achievements, the development of cognitive and communicative skills.</p> <p>Setting and solving real problems, the focus of fantasy and play on the best prospects, the active assimilation of instrumental and objective actions, task</p>	<p>FEELING OF INCOMPLETE.</p> <p>Poorly developed work skills, avoiding difficult tasks, situations of competition with other people, an acute sense of inferiority, doomed to remain mediocre all his life. Feeling of a temporary calm before the storm or the period of puberty, conformity, slavish behavior, a sense of the futility of the efforts made in solving various</p>

	orientation.	problems.
5. Puberty, adolescence and youth (from 11 to 20 years old)	<p>LIFE SELF-DETERMINATION.</p> <p>Development of a time perspective - plans for the future, self-determination in questions: what to be? and who to be? Active self-discovery and</p>	<p>ROLE CONFUSION.</p> <p>Displacement and confusion of time perspectives: thoughts not only about the future, but also about the past. The concentration of mental strength on self-knowledge, a strongly expressed desire to</p>
	<p>experimentation in different roles. Teaching. A clear gender-role polarization in the forms of behavior.</p>	<p>understand oneself to the detriment of relations with the outside world. Half-role fixation. Loss of labor activity.</p>
	<p>Formation of the worldview. Assuming leadership in peer groups and subordinating to them when necessary.</p>	<p>Mixing forms of gender-role behavior, roles in leadership. Confusion in moral and ideological attitudes.</p>
6. Early adulthood (from 20 to 40-45 years old)	<p>CLOSE TO PEOPLE.</p> <p>The desire for contacts with people, the desire and ability to devote oneself to other people. Birth and upbringing of children. Love and work.</p>	<p>ISOLATION FROM PEOPLE.</p> <p>Avoidance of people, especially close, intimate relationships with them. Difficulties of character, promiscuous relationships and</p>
	<p>Satisfaction with personal life.</p>	<p>unpredictable behavior. Non-recognition, isolation, the first symptoms of mental disorders,</p>

		disorders arising under the influence of Supposedly existing threatening forces.
7. Average maturity (from 40-45 to 60 years old)	<p>CREATION.</p> <p>Productive and creative work on yourself and with other people. Mature, full, varied life, satisfaction with family relationships,</p>	<p>STAGNATION.</p> <p>Selfishness, egocentrism, unproductiveness at work. early disability. Exceptional self-care, self-forgiveness.</p>
	<p>parental pride in their children.</p> <p>Education and upbringing of the new generation.</p>	
8. Late adulthood (over 60 years).	<p>COMPLETE LIFE.</p> <p>Constant thoughts about the past, its calm, balanced assessment. Acceptance of</p>	<p>DESPAIR.</p> <p>The feeling that life has been lived in vain, that there is too little time left, that it flies too</p>

	<p>life as it is. Feeling the fullness and usefulness of the life lived. The ability to come to terms with the inevitable. Understanding that death is not terrible.</p>	<p>fast. Awareness of the meaninglessness of one's existence, loss of faith in oneself and in other people. The desire to live life anew, the desire to get more out of it than was received. Feeling the lack of order in the world, the presence of a good, reasonable beginning in it. Fear of approaching death.</p>
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Scheme 5. Crises of age formation according to E. Erickson

The formation of personality in the concept of E. Erickson is understood as a change of stages, at each of which there is a qualitative transformation of the inner world of a person and a radical change in his relationship with the people around him.

E. Erickson depicted in his concept two extreme lines of personal development: normal and abnormal.

A special position on the issue of personal development is taken by the American psychologist E. Fromm. He gave the most philosophically correct interpretation of the goals and objectives of mental development in a modern democratic society. Personal development is the recognition and realization of the unique possibilities that each person has.

The personality must develop freely, and the freedom of its development in practice means not being subject to any higher power and purpose, except for the self-improvement of the personality.

§ MANIFESTATIONS OF PERSONALITY

Almost all theories of personality are based on the assumption that personality as a socio-psychological phenomenon is a stable formation in its main manifestations.

The stability of a person characterizes the sequence of her actions and the predictability of her behavior, gives her actions a natural character. The greatest stability is possessed by dynamic features associated with congenital anatomical and physiological inclinations, properties of the nervous system. These include temperament, emotional reactivity, extraversion-introversion and some other qualities.

Speaking about the stability of the personality, it should be noted that a valuable ability of a person is the ability to adapt to changing conditions of life, to change oneself as a person, if necessary. This kind of quality seems to be very valuable for the individual in cases where radical changes occur in society, requiring each person to significantly change their views, attitudes, and value orientations. Therefore, variability under certain circumstances must be considered as a positive personal property. If a person today is different than yesterday, it means that he is developing.

Extraversion is the focus of the consciousness and attention of a person, but mainly on about what is going on around him. Extraversion is the opposite of introversion - the focus of consciousness, the interests of a person on himself, psychological immersion in his inner world, absorption in his own experiences and problems. Introversion is (like extraversion) one of the basic personality traits. It is necessary to single out a number of personality manifestations that must be considered when working with people. This is, first of all, an attitude - readiness, a person's predisposition to certain actions and reactions to specific stimuli.

There can be various types of installation - perceptual installation (willingness to respond to a stimulus); task-oriented setting; a functional setting that determines how objects are used; a muscular setup in which a certain motor action is optimized.

This is faith - a person's conviction of something, not supported by convincing logical arguments and facts.

This is reflection - the ability of the consciousness of the in-

dividual to focus on itself.

This is adaptability - action in such a way as to facilitate adaptation, adaptation of the organism to the conditions of existence. This term, especially when used in conjunction with adaptive behavior, is being used with increasing frequency and is being used by many in place of terms such as reasonable, normal. It can be said that the behavior of someone who is "reasonable" and "normal" is "adaptive".

This is suggestibility - a state characterized by easy susceptibility, a person's susceptibility to the action of suggestion - an unconscious phenomenon of one person against another, causing a certain change in his psychology and behavior.

This is conformity - the tendency to allow one's own opinions, attitudes, actions, and even perceptions to be influenced by the prevailing opinions, actions, and perceptions of other people. The more specific meaning of conformity is that it is important to understand that there are at least three different patterns in the use of this concept:

- a) behavioral, when it refers to the tendency to "go with the group", i.e. try to act like the majority does;
- b) attitude-related, when referring to a change in attitude or belief as a result of pressure from others, which may or may not be reflected in behavior change;
- c) as a property of a person, when the main characteristic of a person is implied, manifested in the fact that the subject is characterized by one of the two above-mentioned tendencies to conformity.

As you can see, conformity is an uncritical acceptance by a person of someone else's opinion, accompanied by an insincere rejection of one's own opinion, the correctness of which the person internally does not doubt. Such refusal with conformal behavior is usually motivated by opportunistic considerations.

Finally, there is self-esteem. Self-esteem in psychology refers to the assessment of one's own psychological qualities and behavior, achievements and failures, advantages and disad-

vantages.

Self-esteem can be adequate (corresponding to the possibilities), overestimated and underestimated. Conventionally, this can be indicated by the following signs:

$C = B$ (adequate) $C > B$ (high)

$C < B$ (low),

where "C" - self-esteem, "B" - opportunities.

On the basis of self-assessment, the level of claims of the individual is also formed. This is the maximum success that a person expects to achieve in a particular type of activity.

Interesting is a special state of personality, known as frustration.

Frustration is an emotionally difficult experience by a person of his failure, accompanied by a feeling of hopelessness, frustration in achieving certain desired goals. Frustration proceeds as an aggressive or apathetic behavior of the individual.

At the same time, it is often possible to observe facts of a weakening of the response to any factor or the absence of such a response. This phenomenon is called tolerance. It manifests itself in three forms - a calm, reasonable attitude to failures; internal tension and flaunting.

Personality socialization. Socialization is the process by which an individual acquires the knowledge, values, social skills and social sensitivity that enable him to integrate into society and behave adaptively there. Thus, socialization is understood as the process and result of the child's appropriation of social experience in the course of his mental, intellectual and personal development,

i.e. transformations under the influence of training and education, its mental functions, the appropriation of social and moral values, norms and rules of behavior, the formation of a worldview and beliefs.

To a certain extent, we should talk about the self-determination of the individual. This is an independent choice by a person of his life path, values, moral standards, future pro-

fession and living conditions. A person must be able to manage their own psychological states, evaluate their qualities.

Personal self-regulation is understood as the process of managing a person's psychological and physiological states, as well as actions (to be able to control oneself

actualization is the process and result of the use of maximum development by a person of his inclinations and abilities, their implementation in practical matters. Self-actualization is also the desire of the individual for constant self-improvement. In the theory of personality A. Maslow self-actualization is the highest level of psychological development that can be achieved when all basic needs are satisfied and the "actualization" of the full potential of the individual occurs.

The factors of personality formation are:

a) interactions with life circumstances (material, cultural and social conditions);

b) education, which consists in the transfer of socio-historical experience to new generations, a systematic and purposeful impact on the consciousness and behavior of a person in order to form certain attitudes, concepts, principles, value orientations that provide the necessary conditions for development, preparation for life, work;

c) changing circumstances - the personality itself changes (development occurs);

d) self-education - a conscious activity aimed at the fullest possible realization by a person of himself as a person (self-analysis of personal development, self-report, self-control).

§ "PERSONALITY" IN THE WORK OF A DOCTOR

Personally determined "human response to disease";

"The characteristics of the patient's personality, his position in relation to his disease, as well as in relation to doctors and other medical personnel, become essential factors in the success of his rehabilitation. In somatic diseases, as a rule, it is always present, according to K.K. Platonov, "complex circular depend-

encies of the mental and somatic in terms of the type of circle, and in some cases, a vicious circle, with the mutual transition of psychogenic into somatogeny and vice versa. Various methods of psychological correction are used in the somatic clinic. However, recently there has been a focus on personality-oriented psychotherapy, which in essence is a psychological correction of personality structures.

Personality psychology underlies the choice and application of various "psycho-technical" techniques in the work of psychotherapists and general practitioners

thematic characteristic	Direction dynamic	Direction behavioral	Direction existentially humanistic
Main problem	sexual repression	Anxiety	mental alienation
Pathology concept	Conflicts in the realm of instincts; early libidinal drives and desires outside consciousness, i.e. unconscious	Acquired Behavior Patterns: Over- or Under-Developed Behaviors Reinforced by the Environment	Existential despair: loss of opportunities, splitting of the "I", a mismatch between thoughts, feelings and behavior
Health concept	Conflict resolution: the victory of "ego" over "id", i.e. increasing ego power	Elimination of symptoms: absence of a specific symptom and/or decreased anxiety	Actualization of potential: the growth of "I", authenticity and spontaneity

The task of the psychotherapist	Understand the unconscious mental content and its historical, hidden	Program, reinforce, suppress, or generate specific behavioral	Interact in an atmosphere of mutual acceptance conducive to self-expression (from
	meaning	responses to anxiety-producing stimuli	somatic to spiritual)
Fixed assets, equipment	Interpretation: free association, transference analysis, resistance, slips of the tongue and dreams	Conditioning (conditioning): systematic desensitization, positive and negative reinforcement, modeling	Encounter: equal participation in dialogue, experiments or games, dramatization or acting out feelings
Temporary approach and "focus"	Historical: subjective past	Unhistorical: objective present	Lack of historicism: a phenomenological moment
Treatment model	Medical: doctor - patient or parent - child (authoritarian), i.e. therapeutic union.	Educational: teacher - student or parent - child (authoritarian), i.e. study union	Existential: a dyad of two equal people or adults (egalitarian), i.e. human union
The nature of the cure	Transferential (transferable) and paramount for treatment: unreal relationships	Real but secondary to treatment: no relationship	Real and Primary for Treatment: Real Relationships

The role and position of the psychotherapist	Interpretive- thinking: indirect, dispassionate or frustrating	Formative- advising: direct, problem-solving or practical	Interacting- accepting: mutually-permissive or satisfying
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Scheme 6. The basis for the selection and application of various "psychotechnical" methods in work.

Three main schools in psychology and psychotherapeutic practice according to N. Karasu (fragment)

Psychological correction of patients with somatic disorders, mainly concerning secondary violations of significant personality relationships, contributes to changing inadequate reactions to the disease, creating realistic attitudes for treatment in the patient, restoring family and broader social ties. Psychological methods of correcting personal reactions to the disease also contribute not only to improving the condition of patients, but also to preventing relapses of the disease, preventing distress leading to decompensation of patients.

To implement the widespread use of psychocorrection in a somatic clinic, a clear understanding of the so-called psychotherapeutic "targets" is necessary, which, in particular, are various options (types) of personal response to a disease and social maladaptation in connection with a disease. Diagnosis of these types can be carried out in the same way that is usually used in clinical psychiatry, that is, by questioning the patient, observing his behavior, collecting information from relatives and friends.

"Attitude towards illness is an element of the attitude system as a whole and therefore cannot be considered in isolation." (L.I. Wasserman et al., 1990) personal reaction is inherent in people with severe neurological and mental forms of pathology, "concept of health", "internal picture of health", etc. - deeply personal formations;

"Age approach" in the work of a doctor

"The social situation of development", a concept success-

fully developed in domestic psychology, allows us to supplement the traditional medicine problem of "maturing of the body" with the problems of "personality formation". The non-coincidence of the two lines "biological" and "socio-psychological" is extremely important in working with patients.

Of particular importance are data on the early periods of human development, in particular, the presence/absence of "deprivation" phenomena (limitation or even absence of developmental stimuli coming from the external environment to the child, including "psychological" deprivation - for example, a cold, dismissive attitude towards "unwanted" child from the mother's side - or deprivation of the "social" - life in an intellectually poor environment) in early childhood;

The phenomena of "personal psychological time" are closely related to the problems of personality development. German researchers, psychiatrist Klaus Dorner and psychologist Ursula Plog (1996) note: "The past, present and future are not the same, for an atom, a stone, a person, a family, society, space.

Therefore, each mental disorder should be understood only within the framework of a holistic biography of a person it will be easier for the student if he first gets to know long-term observed patients, before he meets with the hospitalization of acute patients: the diameter can be better understood based on the length, and not vice versa ".

§ *TEMPERAMENT.*

Temperament (from Lat. *temperamentum* - the proper ratio of features from *tempero* - I mix in the proper ratio) - a characteristic of an individual from the side of the dynamic features of his mental activity, i.e. tempo, speed, rhythm, intensity that make up this activity of mental processes and states.

"Temperament is the most general characteristic of each individual person, like an animal, the main characteristic of the nervous system, which gives a certain shape to all the activities of each individual" - such a definition of temperament was giv-

en by I.P. Pavlov.

Here is another definition that is given in Arthur Reber's Great Explanatory Dictionary of Psychology: "Temperament is an aspect of personality structure, characterized by a predisposition to certain patterns of emotional response, mood changes and a level of sensitivity determined by arousal. There is a tendency to understand temperament as a genetic predisposition in large part because newborns can show quite striking differences in response to arousal, especially to such stimuli as loud noises, bright lights, sudden movements, touch, and physical contact.

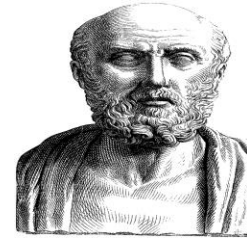
Thus, temperament is an individual feature of a personality that characterizes it from the side of the dynamics of mental processes.

The properties of temperament are such individual properties of the psyche that determine the course, i.e. dynamics of mental activity. On the psychological side, temperament is characterized by individual characteristics in emotional excitability, which in individuals varies in speed, strength, stability, and in the general mobility of a person. These properties are relatively constant with different content, motives and goals of activity and form a structure that characterizes the type of temperament.

As already mentioned, emotional excitability in individuals varies in the speed of its occurrence, in strength and stability. There are people in whom excitability occurs quickly, is distinguished by great strength and stability. In some people, excitability occurs slowly, it is weak and unstable. Most clearly, these features are manifested with feelings in involuntary reactions of the organism to the influence of the environment. Externally, these features of emotional excitability are expressed in facial expressions, pantomime, gestures, in various movements and actions. These features are reflected in the strength and stability of attention, in the qualities of the will, in the speed of speech. According to these manifestations of involuntary activity, we call some people "alive", "nimble", "hot", "impatient", others - "sluggish", "inactive", "slow", etc. These individual characteris-

tics make up the temperament of a person.

The doctrine of temperament was first created by the ancient Greek physician Hippocrates (460-356 BC). According to his teaching, the term "temperament" subsequently came into use, and the names of all four types of temperament were also fixed.



This ancient humoral (liquid) theory associated temperament with the properties of certain liquid media of the body. In the human body, according to Hippocrates, there are four types of fluid:

bile (Greek chole); blood (lat. sanguis);
black bile (Greek : melaine) chole); mucus (Greek phlegma).

Each of these liquids has its own special properties and purpose.

The property of bile is dryness. Its purpose is to maintain dryness in the body (dry the body).

The property of blood is warmth. Its purpose is to warm the body.

The property of black bile is dampness. Its purpose is to maintain dampness, moisture in the body.

The property of mucus is cold. Its purpose is to cool the body. According to Hippocrates, in each person one of these fluids prevails.

The ratio of these fluids, the individual uniqueness of each organism, was designated in Greek by the term "krasis" (mixture, combination), which in Latin sounds like "temperamentum".

Based on the theory of Hippocrates, the doctrine of four types of temperament was gradually formed according to the amount of fluids, the hypothetical predominance of which in the body gave the name to the main types of temperament: sanguine

(from Latin sanguis - blood), choleric (from Greek chole - bile), melancholic (from Greek melaine chole - black bile), phlegmatic (from Greek phlegma - mucus).

The thoughts of the outstanding scientist of the East Abu Ali ibn Sino (980-1037) about human temperaments, which he expounds on a natural - scientific, psychological basis, are interesting. Teaching about temperaments of Abu Ali ibn Sino is based on the humoral theory of Hippocrates. Like Hippocrates, Abu Ali ibn Sino recognized the doctrine of four liquids. Describing temperament, he wrote that temperament is a quality that arises from the interaction of these opposite qualities; temperament. The predominance of one of the liquids in this ratio gives a certain type of temperament, for example, the predominance of black bile gives a melancholic temperament, the predominance of blood - a sanguine temperament, dry yellow bile - choleric, phlegm - a phlegmatic temperament. The ideas of Abu Ali ibn Sino, explaining the differences in temperaments by intraorganic juices, are interesting as one of the stages in

the history of the doctrine of temperaments.

In modern times, the psychological characteristics of temperament types were generalized and systematized for the first time by the German philosopher I. Kant ("Anthropology", 1789 г.), who, however, allowed a mixture of temperament and character traits in his interpretations. I. Kant considered the organic basis of temperament to be the qualitative characteristics of blood, i.e. sharing the position of supporters of humoral theories.

Close to the humoral theories of temperament is formulated by P.F. Lesgaft (1837-1909) the idea that the main manifestations of temperament, ultimately, are the properties of the circulatory system, in particular, the thickness and elasticity of the walls of blood vessels, the diameter of their lumen, the structure and shape of the heart. At the same time, a small lumen and thick walls of the vessels correspond to a choleric temperament,

a small lumen and thin walls - melancholic and, finally, a large lumen and thin walls

- phlegmatic.

The second direction in the study of temperaments belongs to the constitutional theory. Its author E. Kretschmer (1888–1964) identifies, on the basis of the criteria developed by him, the main constitutional body types and makes an attempt to determine temperaments precisely through these types of morphological constitutions. For example, the asthenic type of constitution, characterized by a long and narrow chest, long limbs, an elongated face, weak muscles, corresponds, according to Kretschmer, to a schizoid (schizotemic) temperament, which is characterized by individual characteristics ranging mainly from excessive determination, affectivity and irritability to insensible coldness and dull, "wooden" indifference. Schizoids are also characterized by isolation, withdrawal into the inner world, inconsistency of reactions to external stimuli, contrasts between convulsive impulsiveness and stiffness of action.

Kretschmer, the other main constitutional type, pycnic, characterized by a broad chest, stocky, broad figure, round head, protruding belly, is characterized by a cycloid (cyclotomic) temperament, which is characterized, first of all, by individual characteristics, from constantly elevated mood to constantly low, sad spirit. For cycloids also characteristic are the correspondence of reactions to stimuli, openness, and the ability to merge with the environment, naturalness, softness and smoothness of movements.

E. Kretschmer erroneously defined the role of constitutional features - as factors in the mental development of the individual.

Morphological theories of temperament include the concept of the American psychologist W. Sheldon (1898–1974), who distinguishes three main types of somatic constitution: endomorphic, mesomorphic, and ectomorphic.

Endomorphic type - it is characterized by softness, roundness of appearance, poor development of bone and musculature

systems; it corresponds to a viscerotonic temperament with a love of comfort, with sensual aspirations, relaxation and slow reactions.

Mesomorphic type - characterized by cruelty and harshness of - behavior, the predominance of the musculoskeletal system, athleticism and strength - somotonic temperament, with a love of adventure, a propensity for risk, a thirst for muscular action, activity, courage, aggressiveness.

Ectomorphic type - it is characterized by grace and fragility of the bodily appearance, the absence of pronounced muscles: this is a cerebrotonic temperament, characterized by low sociability, a tendency to isolation and loneliness, and increased reactivity.

Types of temperament according to W. Sheldon (Quoted by J. Strelyau, 1982)

VISCEROTONY	SOMATOTONIA	CEREBROTONIA
1. Relaxation in posture and movements.	1. Confidence in posture and movement.	1. Restraint of manners and movements, stiffness in posture.
2. Love for comfort.	2. Love for physical activity and adventure.	2. Excessive physiological reactivity.
3. Slow reactions.	3. Energy.	3. Increased rate of reactions.
4. Love for food.	4. The need for movement and pleasure from them.	4. Striving for confidential contacts.
5. Socialization of food needs	5. The desire for dominance, power.	5. Excessive mental stress.

6. Pleasure from digestion.	6. Propensity to risk.	6. Secrecy of feelings, emotional restraint.
7. Love for courtesy.	7. Decisive manners.	7. Restless movements of the eyes and face.
8. Sociophilia.	8. Courage in conflicts.	8. Social phobia.
9. Friendly with everyone.	9. Aggressiveness in competition.	9. Difficulties in establishing social contacts
10. Thirst for praise and approval	10. Psychological insensitivity, emotional callousness	10. Difficulty in acquiring new habits, weak automatism.
11. Orientation to other people.	11. Fear (dislike) of enclosed spaces.	11. Fear (dislike) of open spaces.
12. Stability of emotional manifestations.	12. Lack of pity and contact.	12. Inability to foresee the attitude of other people towards oneself.
13. Tolerance.	13. Loud voice.	13. Quiet voice, fear of making noise.
14. Serene contentment.	14. Spartan indifference to pain	14. Excessive sensitivity to pain.
15. Deep sleep.	15. General noise.	15. Inadequate sleep, chronic fatigue.
16. Spinelessness.	16. Appearance corresponds to a more advanced age.	16. Youthful liveliness of manners in appearance.

17. Ease in communication and expression of feelings; ease of vasomotor reactions.	17. Extraversion in actions, but secrecy in feelings and emotions; ease of movement.	17. Tendency to reflection, introspection
18. Sociability and gentleness in a state of intoxication.	18. Aggressiveness and perseverance in a state of intoxication.	18. Resistance to alcohol and other repressants
19. The need for people in a difficult moment.	19. Craving for action in a difficult moment.	19. Craving for loneliness in a difficult moment.
20. Orientation towards childhood and family relationships.	20. Focus on youthful goals and activities.	20. Orientation to the later periods of life.

Scheme 7. Types of temperament according to W. Sheldon

The main disadvantage of humoral and morphological theories is that

they take as the root cause of behavioral manifestations of temperament such body systems that do not and cannot have the properties necessary for this.

The basis for the development of a truly scientific theory of temperament was created by the teachings of I.P. Pavlov (1848-1936) on the typological properties of the nervous system (neurological theory) - the doctrine of the types of higher nervous activity. Under the type of higher nervous activity (HNA) I.P. Pavlov understood the combination of the most important features in the activity of the nervous system of animals and humans. I.P. Pavlov discovered differences in neural processes:

- a) by the strength of excitation and inhibition;
- b) according to the degree of their balance;
- c) according to the degree of mobility.

The strength of the nervous system is considered as the amount of reserves of physiological matter in the cell. A strong

type of nervous system is with a large supply of such a substance, a weak is one with a small one.

The strength of the nervous system refers to both the process of excitation and the process of inhibition and is expressed primarily in the ability to "endure" strong stimuli.

The balance of the nervous system is expressed in the ability of the nervous system to maintain equal force in the processes of inhibition and excitation. There is balance in the nervous system when excitation and inhibition are equally strong or equally weak. The nervous system will be unbalanced when one of these processes is stronger or weaker than the other. Mobility (lability) of the nervous system consists in varying degrees of ease of changing excitation by inhibition or vice versa, inhibition by excitation in one area of the cortex.

According to these signs, according to I.P. Pavlova, there are four main types of higher nervous activity, which correspond to the four types of temperament according to Hippocrates:

I. Strong, unbalanced (i.e., with a predominance of the process of excitation over inhibition). Sharply excitable type ("unrestrained type"). It underlies the choleric temperament.

II . Strong, balanced, mobile type. Living type. It underlies the sanguine temperament.

III . Strong, balanced, inert type. Calm, slow type. Underlies the phlegmatic temperament.

IV . Weak type. Underlies the melancholic temperament.

Thus, according to the teachings of I.P. Pavlov, temperament is a manifestation of the type of higher nervous activity in human behavior.

Psychological characteristics of temperament types

The main properties of temperaments are as follows (according to V.S. Merlin):

a) Sensitivity - the ability of the smallest force of external influences - to cause any mental reaction (low threshold of sensations).

- b) Reactivity - the strength of the emotional reaction, emotionality, impressionability.
- c) Activity - the degree of activity of the impact on the outside world.
- d) The ratio of reactivity and activity.
- e) Rate of reactions - the rate of mental reactions and processes (speed of movement, rate of speech, resourcefulness, quickness of mind).
- f) Plasticity - flexibility, changeability, compliance, the ability of the brain tissue to replace the functions usually performed by another tissue.
- g) Rigidity - inertness, inertness of behavior.
- h) Extroversion - dependence of human reactions on external impressions.
- i) introversion - the dependence of human reactions on images, ideas, thoughts related to the past and future.
- j) emotional excitability - features of the emergence, course and termination of emotional processes and their external expression.

We present the psychological characteristics of the types of temperaments in accordance with the above properties in the form of the following table:

Main properties	Choleric	sanguine	Phlegmatic	melancholic
1. Sensitivity	reduced	reduced	reduced	increased
2. Reactivity	high	high	low	low
3. Activity	high	high	high	low

4. Relationship between reactivity and activity	$p > a$	balanced _	$a > p$	low activity, low reactivity
5. Rate of reactions	accelerated	accelerated	delayed	delayed
6. Plasticity	-	+	-	-
7. Rigidity	+	-	+	+
8. Extraversion	+	+	-	-
9. Introversion	-	-	+	+
10. Emotional excitability	increased	increased	reduced	slow

Scheme 8. The psychological characteristics of temperament types.

The temperament of each individual cannot be "packed" into one type of framework. The very concept of type suggests that only group resemblances are united here. In the temperament of each person there are individual characteristics that cannot be attributed to one or another specific type. They are precisely individual, i.e. inherent only to this individual. In most people, there is a combination of signs of one type with signs of other temperaments: a choleric person may have features of a melancholic and phlegmatic person, a sanguine person can have features of choleric and phlegmatic person, etc.

It is possible to attribute a person to one or another temperament only according to the prevailing features.

Based on all of the above about temperaments, however, it is impossible to conclude that the structural features of the nerv-

ous system once and for all determine all the features of a person's temperament.

One or another type of the nervous system creates only a predisposition or an opportunity for the manifestation of certain personality traits. In the process of life, depending on the conditions, under the influence of the environment and, mainly, under the influence of education, changes occur in the manifestations of temperament.

Every temperament has good and bad qualities. It is necessary to develop good to restrain negative properties.

So, in a choleric person it is necessary to develop restraint, in a sanguine person - to bring the work begun to the end, in a phlegmatic person

- a faster inclusion in activities, in a melancholic person - a manifestation of perseverance, etc.

One possible way is to choose an activity that suits the person's temperament.

Another way (especially in teaching) is the way of adaptation, individualization of the requirements.

But the main and most universal way is the formation of an individual style of activity, i.e. an individual system of techniques and actions that are characteristic of a given person and appropriate for achieving success. An individual style of activity is a certain combination of temperament properties that manifests itself in cognitive processes, actions and communication, which is a system of dynamic features of activity that depend on temperament and contain work methods that are typical for a given person. More details about the individual style can be found in the work of Klimov E.A.²

"Temperament" and "gender" in the work of a doctor.

Temperament can become one of the factors essential for understanding the etiology of diseases (both neuropsychic and psychosomatic);

Temperament type	Coronary artery disease %	Epilepsy, %	Control group, healthy %
SJ (EPIMETEUS)	92,3	48,0	38,0.
SP (DIONYSUS)	0,0	22,0	38,0
NT (PROMETEUS)	4,8	0,0	12,0
NF (APOLLO)	2,9	30,0	12,0

Temperaments (according to D. Keirsej) and diseases (Pavlov K.V., 1995)

It is necessary to take into account the manifestations of temperament in the patient's reaction to the disease. As studies show (Granovskaya R.M.), a person with a weak type of nervous system (melancholic) is especially prone to a reaction of fear, with a strong one (choleric) - to anger and rage. These reactions under conditions of stress or the continuation of a conflict situation can intensify psychosomatic symptoms. In these cases, psychological or psychotherapeutic counseling can greatly help in the treatment.

Sanguine is inclined, as a rule, to positive emotions. He has a high threshold of sensitivity, so he poorly distinguishes or does not notice very weak stimuli, including minor signs of the disease, he can react: "Nothing, it will pass!"

Phlegmatic, tends to delay the visit to the doctor or not go to him at all. In addition, as a rule, it is difficult for them to get along with people and it is difficult to contact an unfamiliar doctor, to talk in detail about their state of health, their problems.

The doctor cannot avoid the influence of his or her own temperament on the solution of professional problems. Failure to understand the determining influence of temperament on the style and pace of interaction is often a source of irritation. For example, the doctor is sanguine, and the patient is phlegmatic. Without understanding psychology, it is very likely that the doctor will be annoyed by the slowness of the patient (there are many others at the reception, the doctor is in a hurry), but he

will perceive the same qualities of his phlegmatic colleague as reliability and poise.

It is important to emphasize that the discrepancy between the level of claims and the level of real possibilities in a melancholic and phlegmatic is less than in a sanguine and choleric, i.e. they are more realistic about themselves and their successes.

In addition, a specific reaction to a situation can be determined both by the influence of the properties of the nervous system, and be the result of training and professional experience. For example, a surgeon's high reaction rate during an operation may be the result of training rather than inborn traits.

For low-reactive doctors - phlegmatic and melancholic - it is typical to prefer situations that require less physiological costs from them, that is, more comfortable in terms of psychological and physiological criteria (a convenient place to work, good relations in the team, calm patients).

For highly reactive - sanguine and choleric - the optimal strategy is associated with a decrease in excitation by avoiding excessive stimulation (difficult cases, situations of uncertainty, risk). It has been experimentally proven that sanguine and choleric people show less resistance when the conditions and methods of activity are regulated and do not allow the inclusion of individual techniques. Such doctors like to diversify their work, either by combining a hospital and a clinic, or different places of work, or different specializations. Phlegmatic doctors, on the contrary, are more productive in conditions of strict regulation. They rarely change jobs, types and methods of treatment, patients.

Under normal conditions, temperament manifests itself only in the features of an individual style, without determining the effectiveness of the activity. In extreme situations (operations, difficult cases, accidents, deaths, conflicts with patients, colleagues, administration, etc.), the influence of temperament on the efficiency of activity increases, learned forms of behavior become ineffective, and additional energy mobilization of the body

is required.

Temperamental features should be taken into account when analyzing communication, interaction "doctor-patient". It is known that one can be both choleric and sanguine at the same time, but one cannot be both melancholic and sanguine or choleric and phlegmatic at the same time - temperaments go in circles. From this it follows that choleric and sanguine, phlegmatic and melancholic, sanguine and phlegmatic communicate better.

The influence of temperament on some stages of the surgeon's activity. (cited by A.V. Shaposhnikov "Iatrogeny. Terminological analysis and construction of the concept." - Rostov-on-Don, 1998)

Temperament	STAGES OF ACTIVITY		
	diagnostic	<i>tactical strategic assessment</i>	<i>operating act</i>
Choleric	quick, superficial examination, omission of	a decision is made on the choice of treatment, not supported by	operates quickly, nervously, often exceeding the required volume, especially in
	important	additional diagnostic	
	symptoms, verbal contact with the patient is shortened.	methods, in a hurry; long-term effects, the degree of risk is rarely taken into account.	emergency surgery; happens to be careless.
Sanguine	superficial examination,	estimates and forecasts are	operates soundly, usually uses

	excessive trust in the words of the patient, laboratory indicators,	simplified, often formulaic	standard techniques.
	consultants; unreasonable belief in the correctness of the diagnosis; details are missing.		
Phlegmatic	slow, does not cause the patient's interest in contact, may be indifferent; is not active enough in emergency situations.	adequately assesses the status of the patient, immediate and long-term consequences of the operation.	slowly responds to intraoperative complications (bleeding, etc.).
Melancholic	collects sufficiently complete information about the patient and the disease, sometimes exaggerates individual signs.	cautious, pessimistic in assessments and forecasts	afraid to make responsible decisions during the operation, lost in non-standard situations.

Scheme 9. The influence of temperament on some stages of the surgeon's activity

Phlegmatic and melancholic will not irritate each other, but communication will be difficult for them, because they are both introverts.

Cholerics and sanguines - extroverts "open-hearted" - do not like to delve into their thoughts and feelings. Phlegmatic and sanguine people have a stable, whole character; choleric and melancholic - unstable. These contradictions interfere with smooth relationships. A doctor cannot select a patient according to the type of temperament additional to his own, but he is obliged to know and see these features, as well as control his emotions, correctly respond to the manifestation of the patient's temperament.

In addition, the doctor can take into account the characteristics of the patient in the treatment: sanguine should be included in the treatment and encourage his efforts; phlegmatic should be interested in treatment, but it is impossible to abruptly switch to new methods of treatment and unfamiliar drugs, it is necessary to observe gradualness; in relation to the melancholic, not only rudeness is unacceptable, but also irony, inattention; a choleric person should be pointed out vigorously to violations of the recommended treatment measures.

Gender characteristics of the personality affect selectivity in relation to stressful influences (for example, the "value" of various parts of the body in men and women do not match), and the intensity of experiences (for example, men experience the situation of "immobility" much worse).

A separate issue is the family union of a man and a woman, their "separate" and "joint" reaction to the illness of a family member.

§ CHARACTER

The term "character" was introduced into the everyday life

of science by the ancient Greek scientist and philosopher Theophrastus.

The word "character" in Greek means "feature", "sign", "sign", "feature". This word comes from the verb "harasso" - to sharpen, draw, scratch.

Life practice leads to the need to define the concept of character in two meanings: more general and more special or strict.

In general, or in the broad sense of the word, a person's character should be understood as individual, pronounced and qualitatively unique psychological traits of a person that affect his behavior and actions.

Character in the strict or proper sense of the word is defined as the mental warehouse of a person's personality, expressed in its direction and will.

Orientation is a selective attitude to reality that characterizes a given person, peculiarly experienced by him, affecting his activity. The mental make-up of a person receives its characteristic outlines most or best of all in the struggle, which always requires willpower from a person.

In life, the terms "strong character", "person with character", "weak character" are widely used, thereby highlighting the will in the mental warehouse of a person.

Character structure

The task of studying the structure of character is to identify and systematize character traits and establish their relationship.

Character traits are understood as complex individual features that are sufficiently indicative for a person and allow, with a certain probability, to predict his behavior in a particular case.

Depending on the main life relations of a person to reality, the main features of his orientation can be divided into the following groups:

A. Attitude to society, to the things of the surrounding world (patriotism, love for one's Motherland, land, heroic past, culture, language, for a great future);

B. Attitude towards work;

B. Attitude towards other people;

D. Attitude towards oneself.

A. Attitude towards society, towards the things of the surrounding world; it is above all patriotism, love for one's Motherland. A special place is occupied by patriotism as love for the places where a person was born and spent his years of life. This is love for the heroic past of our people, its rich culture, native language, faith in the great future of our people and state.

This attitude is especially vividly manifested in the conditions of gaining the independence of our Republic, awareness of one's place in the life of society, one's responsibility for the prosperity of our society. This is accuracy, frugality, and generosity in relation to the objects of the surrounding world, or their opposite - sloppiness, stinginess, wastefulness.

B. Attitude to work: work is the basis of life, attitude to work is diligence, initiative, efficiency, mental state of satisfaction in work, joy in success, when work becomes a human need, but there may be opposite features - a formal attitude to work, lazy workers, etc.

C. Attitude towards other people: this is frankness and sincerity, or the opposite traits - secrecy and pretense. This is sensitivity, tact; the opposite is callousness, rudeness, heartlessness. This is sociability, the opposite is isolation. Finally, it is politeness and punctuality.

D. Attitude towards oneself: on the basis of a person's attitude towards himself and other people, many character traits are formed that are of great importance for the individual and for society.

These include traits associated with self-esteem and a person's need to work on him. First of all, it's modesty.

Modesty includes the following psychological components: 1) dislike for any kind of vanity, posing, self-advertising; 2) recognition of the limitations of their achievements in comparison with what others have achieved or what has not yet been achieved at all; 3) sensitivity, expressed in the fear of offending

someone by exalting oneself; 4) awareness of the dependence of one's personal merits and successes on the created favorable conditions.

A modest person is usually simple, natural in his treatment of people, does not like loud phrases and is critical of him, retains his personal dignity and does not lose confidence in his abilities.

Modesty should be distinguished from underestimation of oneself, leading to insufficient self-confidence, to belittling one's own merits and achievements.

Some people still find a place for conceit, narcissism, swagger, arrogance.

The most important personality trait is self-criticism as a constant - incentive to work on oneself.

Independence and imitation play an important role in characterizing a person's attitude towards himself.

Independence - as a positive character trait is associated with a sense of responsibility, with self-confidence. This feature is especially characteristic of creative workers who are blazing new trails in some area.

Imitateness is the tendency to copy in one's judgments and Actions the judgments and actions of other people. Imitation, following good examples, is a trait necessary for all people. Blind imitation can lead to following bad examples, which are contagious for weak-willed people.

Independent people are confident in their abilities, persistently achieve their goals.

As has already been pointed out, clarity and great goals, the saturation of aspirations with invigorating, mobilizing feelings, are of great importance for character.

Volitional character traits are activity, energy of character, decisiveness, courage, originality, initiative, self-confidence, discipline, perseverance, perseverance, endurance, patience, courage, etc.

It should be distinguished from positive strong-willed

character traits that are very negative, for example, stubbornness.

Stubbornness is distinguished by a very narrow and unreasonable motivation (“I did it the way I want”) and is explained by narrowness of thinking, great demands on others and weak demands on oneself, weak compliance with reasonable convictions.

Usually, in the character structure, some traits (often one trait) dominate.

The structure of character as a whole implies its certainty, integrity, originality, dynamism.

One of the main features of a person’s character is his certainty. The certainty of character means the dominance of one or more traits. For example, in the character of Hamlet, the main thing is the discord between the mind and the great potential of passions, on the one hand, and fear of life, on the other. In the absence of clearly expressed traits, the character loses its certainty.

Wholeness character - its internal unity, the absence of contradictory features in the character, the correspondence between direction and activity, consciousness and actions.

Complexity character - when there can be several different interests that actively influence the consciousness and activity of the individual.

For example, the complexity of the character of M.V. Lomonosov (a variety of scientific interests, combined with great restraint and perseverance in work, with great passion and emotionality, combined with softness of soul, lyricism with harshness as an expression of noble anger).

Originality - individual originality, which is rare.

Dynamism is a well-known variability of character traits, caused both by external conditions and changes in work on oneself. When they talk about dynamism as a distinctive feature of a person’s character, they mean a special susceptibility to change. Character is usually judged by its strength or hardness.

Depending on life situations, character manifests itself in a variety of ways in the minds and activities of people, and partly in its external appearance.

Character manifests itself with great force in those types of human activity that we call deeds. An act is an action subject to social, moral and legal evaluation. The manifestation of character in speech is loudness, tempo, speed, verbosity, emotionality.

Talkativeness can serve as a manifestation of self-confidence, the - desire to show off, narcissism, egocentrism, can be associated with the desire to be pleasant in society, attentiveness to people.

Silence can be explained by a high sense of responsibility for one's words, by following the proverb - "The word is silver, silence is gold", sometimes it can be explained by a kind of cunning, a desire to hide one's thoughts and feelings, and sometimes by isolation, timidity, suspicion.

Character is manifested in facial expressions, pantomime, gestures. For example, wrinkles are not only age-related, but habitual movements (frowns, laughs).

"The eyes are the mirror of the soul": cunning, radiant, bright, cold, - lifeless, sad, etc. L.N. Tolstoy wrote: "There are people who have only laughing eyes. These people are cunning and selfish. There are people whose mouth laughs without eyes - they are weak, indecisive people, and both of these laughter are unpleasant.

The manifestation of character is also expressed in the external appearance of a person, for example, a pose. Arrogance is manifested in the fact that the body moves back, the chest protrudes, and the head is thrown back.

Even a person's costume, his things sometimes represent an important detail in his characterization.

Attempts to determine the character of a person by external signs were manifested in a number of areas - graphology, palmistry.

Graphology (from the Greek grapho - "I write", logos -

“teaching”) is the study of handwriting, its study from the point of view of the properties and mental states of the writer reflected in it.

Chiromancy (from the Greek chiro - hand, manteia - divination) - divination by the lines and tubercles of the palm, according to superstitious people, supposedly allowing you to determine the character of a person and predict fate. Folk wisdom says:

"Sow an act -reap the habit

Sow a habit reap character, Sow character -reap your fate."

The formation of a person's character occurs in a certain social environment. Character is, as it were, a reflection of the existing system of education in society. First of all, the nature of the child depends on his parents, family. Education and upbringing at school is of the utmost importance. Of particular note is the role of self-education of character.

Ways of educating character are the formation of habits, imitation. A significant role is given to the formation of character in labor.

One of the conditions for the formation of character is the hardening of character, where conflict situations and the ability to overcome them play an important role.

Finally, we point out that in the process of life and activity, problems arise in the re-education of character.

"Character" in the work of a doctor

The characterological features of patients form (predetermine) not only the appearance and behavior, but a specific reaction to the disease. The strength and nature of such a reaction may in some cases exceed the severity of the somatic suffering itself with which the patient turns to the doctor, or, conversely, provoke an escape from the real situation, ignoring the doctor's professional help even when it is urgently needed.

When we are collecting an anamnesis and constructing a pathogenetic diagnosis, it is necessary to take into account the selective sensitivity of certain characters to various areas of life.

It can be argued that along with "accentuated characters" there are "accentuated spheres of life", in relation to which weaknesses of a particular nature are more quickly and more clearly manifested (this issue will be discussed in more detail later in the second volume of workshops, in the topic devoted to the classification of personality disorders in ICD-10).

Character should be taken into account when choosing means of influence (psychotherapeutic assistance or psychological counseling). In other words, there are characters with the dominance of will, emotions, or a rational attitude to reality. These aspects of the regulation of behavior represent for a given character a mode of action that is most understandable and productive. Hence the importance of taking into accounts the predominance of certain features when choosing methods of influence. The consequences of the changes initiated by our activity must be understood and accepted by the client.

Professional growth is associated with the formation of the doctor's character, especially in the part that is associated with volitional behavior. As already mentioned, a feature of character development is the extreme importance of the early periods of formation. Therefore, the work of character development, in many ways, is the task of adolescence and the period of primary professional specialization.

"Social character" by Erich Fromm.

"Temperament refers to the way, the style of response, it is constitutional and unchangeable; the character is formed on the basis of a person's life experience, especially in early childhood, and is able to undergo certain changes under the influence of a new life path and intuition. If a person, for example, has a choleric temperament, then his response style will be "fast and strong." But the situations in which he shows such a reaction, or what he reacts to in a similar way, depend on the character.

The confusion with the concepts of temperament and character had serious consequences for the theory of ethics. If preferences regarding differences in temperaments are primarily a

matter of taste, then differences in characters from the point of view of ethics are of extremely important fundamental importance ... Goering and Himmler were people of different temperaments (cyclothymic and schizothymic, respectively). Therefore, from the point of view of subjective preferences, one who is impressed by the cyclothymic temperament should "like" Goering, and the other - Himmler. However, in terms of character, both have one thing in common: both were ambitious sadists.

The theory presented below inherits, in its main points, Freud's characterology, that is, it proceeds from the assumption that character traits underlie behavior and can be derived from it, and that they form driving forces which, however great they may be, may not at all be perceived by man. It also follows Freud in that it accepts another assumption, namely, that what determines the character is not any one specific trait, but the whole character structure that determines its individual traits. The whole set of traits of character should be considered as a syndrome, which is the result of a special organization, or, as I call it, orientation of character. ...

The main difference between the theory of character we present and Freud's theory is that the fundamental basis of character is seen not in the types of organization of the libido, but in the specific types of a person's relationship to the world. (E.Fromm Man for himself)

According to E. Fromm, there are at least four destructive types of character ("orientation"), which, nevertheless, help a person to survive (ugly, unhappy, miserable, unstable). Their behavioral characteristics are shown on the right side of the table below (Table 3.2.). On the left side of the table - alternative to destructive - constructive, productive personality traits are given, the sum of which creates an effective strategy for adapting to a rapidly changing social reality (and a list of which can become some guide for self- education).

RECEPTIONAL ORIENTATION (receiving)

Receiver	Passive, uninitiative
Responsible	Reckless, spineless
Dedicated, respectful	submissive
Modest	Deprived of pride
Charming	Parasitic
Conversational	Unprincipled
Socially adjusted	Subservient, insecure
Idealizing	Unrealistic
Polite	Spineless
Receptive	Cowardly, cowardly
Optimistic	Wishful thinking
Trusted	Gullible
Sensitive, delicate, gentle	Sentimental

EXPLOITATIVE ORIENTATION (mastering)

Active	Operating
Proactive	Aggressive
Demanding	Egocentric
Proud	Conceited
Impulsive	Reckless, reckless
Self-confident	Arrogant, arrogant
Captivating	Seductive

SAVING ORIENTATION (saving)

Practical	Devoid of fantasy
Economical	Stingy, greedy
Cautious	Suspicious
Restrained	Callous, cold
Patient	Apathetic, sluggish
Prudent, attentive	Anxious, preoccupied
Imperturbable	Lazy
Balanced	Inert in a stressful situation
Careful	Pedantic
methodical	obsessed with an obsession
Loyal	Slavishly devoted

MARKET ORIENTATION (exchanging)

Purposeful	Seizing the opportunity
Ready for change	Inconsistent
Youthful, energetic	Childish, moody
Far-sighted	Without past or future

Freethinker	Immoral
Communicative	avoiding lonelines
Experimental	Aimless
Proud	Conceited
Open-minded, non-dogmatic	Unprincipled
Entrepreneurial	Hyperactive
Inquisitive	Tactless
Smart	Clever
Contact	Promiscuous in contacts
Tolerant	Indifferent
Witty	Rustic
Generous	Wasteful

Scheme 10. Types of characters according to E. Fromm

§ CAPABILITIES

The National Program for Personnel Training (1997), which defined the Uzbek model of the system of continuous education, sets the main task of forming a harmoniously developed personality.

Among the most important tasks of this Program is a study on the development of measurement and evaluation of intelligence, abilities and personal qualities of students.

The problem of capabilities is one of the most interesting in psychological science. This problem has occupied the attention of scientists since ancient times.

A great contribution to the study of the potential of a person outside the thinkers of the East (Farabi , Biruni, Abu Ali ibn Sino, etc.), Russian psychologists (Teplov B.M., Ananiev B.G., Rubinshtein S.L., Kovalev A. G., Myasishchev V.N., Kuzmina N.V.), European and American scientists Binet A., Simon T., Galton F., Stern V., Allport W., Rogers K. and others.

Scientists psychologists of Uzbekistan Gaziev E.G., Gai-nutdinov R.Z., Davletshin M.G., Kadyrov B.R., Tokareva V.A. and many others also deal with the problems of capabilities.

When we try to understand and explain why different peo-

ple, placed in the same conditions of life, achieve different successes, we turn to the concept of "ability", believing that the difference in success can be quite satisfactorily explained by abilities.

The same concept is used by us when we need to understand why some people acquire knowledge, skills and abilities faster and better than others.

What are capabilities?

The term "capabilities", despite its long and widespread use in psychology, the presence in the literature of many of its definitions, is ambiguous.

If we summarize its definition and try to present them in a compact classification, we will see that its modern definition was formed as a result of a long path of development, overcoming contradictions in the process of cognition of this complex psychological phenomenon.

Let us consider how these definitions were formed. The oldest and - broadest definition of capability in the history of psychological science is as follows:

"Capabilities are the properties of the human soul, taken as a set of all kinds of mental processes and states."

In what way is this definition insufficient and inconsistent? It comes from the German philosopher Christian Wolff (1679–1754) and his theory of capabilities. All psychic phenomena in this direction belonged to the - category of abilities. This approach did not make it possible to determine the structure of specific abilities, their characteristics and place in human life. It is quite clear that at the present time it is practically no longer used in psychology.

In the XVIII -XI X centuries. the definition was adopted: "Capabilities are a high level of development of general and special knowledge, skills and abilities that ensure the successful performance of various types of activities by a person."

Is this definition correct? And what is wrong with it?

In practice, we meet when people with certain capabilities

could not show them, because. Did not have the necessary knowledge. A classic example is the fact when young V. Surikov was not admitted to the Academy of Arts in St. Petersburg, and a year later, having studied painting skills in an icon-painting workshop, he was admitted to the Academy by the same examiners.

Albert Einstein in high school was considered an ordinary student, nothing, it would seem, foreshadowed his future genius.

Capabilities are found not in the knowledge and skills themselves, but in the dynamics of their acquisition, i.e. in how, other things being equal, they are quickly, easily and deeply acquired.

This definition is still in use today.

Finally, consider another definition: "Ability is something that does not come down to knowledge, skills and abilities, but explains (provides) their rapid acquisition, consolidation and effective use in practice."

What is the novelty and completeness of this definition? In this definition, abilities are not limited to knowledge, skills and abilities, but relate them to how a person acquires this knowledge, skills and abilities (easily, quickly, deeply), and also manifests itself in successful activities and ease of mastering these types of activities.

Thus, as a result of the resolution of contradictions, the search for truth, scientists came to the conclusion that "capabilities are individual characteristics of a person, on which the completeness, speed, ease, depth of acquiring knowledge, talents and abilities, as well as the success in performing various types of activities and ease of mastering them. This definition in psychology was first introduced by a major psychologist B.M. Teplov (1896–1965). It is accepted now and the most common. However, it is the most accurate.

As already mentioned, a significant contribution to the development of the general theory of capabilities was made by

B.M. Teplov. In the concept of "ability", according to B.M. Teplov, there are three ideas:

“Firstly, capabilities are understood as individual psychological - characteristics that distinguish one person from another.

Secondly, capabilities are not called any individual characteristics in general, but only those that are related to the success of any activity or many activities.

Thirdly, the concept of "capabilities" is not limited to the knowledge, skills or abilities that a given person has developed.”³

B.M. Teplov believed that abilities cannot exist otherwise than in a constant process of development.

An ability that does not develop, that a person ceases to use in practice, is lost over time.

Consider the classification of capabilities in modern psychology.

There are natural or natural abilities and specific human abilities.

Natural capabilities are the elementary abilities of perception, memory, thinking, etc. They are common to humans and animals. A person, in addition to biologically determined ones, has abilities that ensure his life and development in a social environment. These are general and special intellectual abilities based on the use of speech and logic, theoretical and practical, educational and creative, subject and interpersonal.

General capabilities determine the success of a person in a variety of activities.

Special capabilities determine the success of a person in specific activities, the implementation of which requires the makings of a special kind and their development.

Such capabilities include musical, mathematical, technical, literary, artistic and creative, sports, pedagogical and a number of others.

In psychological science, a lot of experimental work has been published on various types of special features.

Let us dwell on some of the most characteristic works.

Musical capabilities studied by B.M. Teplov in his work "Psychology of musical abilities".⁴

As part of musical talent, a special complex of individual psychological characteristics stands out, which is required for engaging in precisely musical activity, which B.M. Teplov called musicality.

Its main feature is B.M. Teplov considers the experience of music as an expression of some content.

The capability of emotional responsiveness to music is the center of musicality.

B.M. Teplov considers the structure of musicality - an organic system of musical capabilities: ear for music, sense of rhythm and musical memory.

On the problem of mathematical capabilities worked V.A. Krutetsky. In the monograph "Psychology of mathematical capabilities"⁵ the author examines in detail the concept of mathematical abilities and their structures.

He revealed the individual characteristics of perception, thinking, memory, and imagination, which are manifested in mathematical activity (both creative scientific abilities, i.e., the ability to scientific mathematical activity, and learning abilities to study (learn, assimilate) mathematics.

V.A. Krutetsky revealed that in the field of perception of mathematical - material, capable schoolchildren should note a kind of "folded" analytical- synthetic processing of this material, they, as it were, "from the spot" perceive the structure of the problem, reveal the main relationships. Students capable of mathematics are distinguished by a good development of spatial representations. Schoolchildren who are especially gifted in mathematics are characterized by a peculiar "mathematical mindset" - a tendency to find logical and mathematical meaning in all phenomena of reality, to realize them in terms of logical and mathematical relations.

In capabilities, several levels can be distinguished: gifted-

ness, talent, genius.

Giftedness is the presence in a person of natural inclinations to develop capabilities.

Talent is a high level of development of a person's abilities, which ensures the achievement of outstanding success in a particular type of activity.

Genius is the highest level of development of any capabilities in a - person, which makes him an outstanding personality in the corresponding field of activity.

A high level of personality development at the stage of its maturity is studied by a special area of psychology - acmeology.

Having found out what specific psychological qualities correspond to this activity, it is possible to answer the question to what extent they are developed in a person.

However, when assessing the mental development of a child, it is necessary to take into account the critical remark of L.S. Vygotsky that if a child does not solve the problem proposed to him, then this fact does not yet mean the level of his capabilities. L.S. Vygotsky proposed not to be limited to a simple single study, but to conduct the study twice. The first time, finding out how the child solves the problem on his own, and the second time, how he solves it with the help of an adult. Not the assessment of the independent solution of the problem, but the discrepancy between the results of the independent solution and the solution with the help of an adult becomes an important component of the overall assessment of the child's capabilities. The way to identify the level of abilities described above was indicated by L.S. Vygotsky as a method for determining the child's zone of proximal development.

Psychological science does not deny the innate differential capabilities contained in the structure of the brain, which may be the conditions for the successful implementation of any activity.

These morphological and functional features of the structure of the brain, sensory organs and movement, which act as

natural prerequisites for the development of capabilities, are called inclinations .

The assignments are multi-valued. Based on the same inclinations, different abilities can develop, depending on the nature of the requirement presented by activity. At present, we can talk about the greater or lesser productivity of hypotheses about the nature of the natural prerequisites for the development of abilities. As well as the definition of abilities, the problem of inclinations in the history of our science has its own history.

The correct explanation of this issue has not yet received a final - decision.

Associating abilities with hereditary characteristics, scientists tried to solve this problem from different positions. F. Gall (1758–1728) put forward a hypothesis about the existence of a connection between individual anatomical features of the brain and individual capabilities. Is this hypothesis correct? At one time, it was progressive, as it associated abilities with the brain. According to F. Gall that the qualities of the mind, talents and abilities are strictly localized in the cerebral hemispheres, has long been rejected by science.

But in everyday consciousness, unfortunately, there are still ideas that supposedly there is a connection between the size of the brain, its weight and capabilities.

An individual with a high forehead is obviously endowed with a mind; they expect reasonable reasoning and decisions from him. On the contrary, an individual with a low forehead meets an unfavorable prognosis in relation to mental capabilities.

These predictions, as a rule, were not confirmed. The hypothesis about the dependence of abilities on the weight of the brain also turned out to be untenable. It is known that the brain of an adult weighs about 1400 grams. At the same time, it is known that if the brain of I.S. Turgenev had a weight of 2012 gr. and D. Byron 1800 gr., then the brain of A. France weighed only 1017 gr. and the famous chemist Yu Liebig - 1362 gr. At the same

time, it was revealed that the brain of a mentally handicapped person turned out to be the largest and heaviest - more 2 kg. These facts disproved the hypothesis about the influence of brain weight on the development of abilities. Science continued to search for truth.

At present, the most productive are the hypotheses that link inclinations with the microstructure of the brain and sensory organs. Meaning the doctrine of the types of VIEW (general) and also special types of VIEW of a person with a predominance of signals from the first signal system and mental activity (artistic type), the relative predominance of the "signal of signals" - the II signal system (thinking type), their equal representation - the middle type.

Even more likely are hypotheses that link the natural prerequisites of abilities with the so-called partial (private) features of the nervous system,

i.e. originality of typological properties, manifested in some - in the visual sphere, in others - in the auditory, in others - in the motor sphere.

At the same time, we must be well aware that any inclinations, before turning into abilities, must go through the path of development.

The primary stage in the development of any capabilities is associated with the maturation of the organic structures necessary for it or with the formation of functional organs on their basis (the period of life from birth to 6-7 years). The formation of special abilities actively begins already at preschool age and continues at an accelerated pace at school (in the lower and middle grades). The versatility and diversity of activities in which a person is simultaneously involved acts as one of the most important conditions for the complex and versatile development of his capabilities. The study of a high level of abilities shows that their presence is manifested in the early stages of personality development.

It is known that Mozart began performing pieces of music

at the age of 3; Rafael started painting at the age of 8; Repin - at 4 years old; Pushkin composed poetry at the age of 7. The father of cybernetics, Wiener, entered the university at the age of 12.

But there are many examples when abilities were manifested in the late hoods (Aksakov, Shishkov).

The main requirements that apply to activities that develop human abilities are as follows:

- the creative nature of the activity;
- the optimal level of its difficulty for the performer;
- proper motivation and ensuring a positive emotional mood during and after the completion of the activity.

It should be especially noted that if the activity being performed is in the zone of optimal difficulty, i.e. at the limit of the child's abilities, then it leads to the development of his abilities, realizing what L.S. Vygotsky called the zone of proximal development. At the same time, we must understand well that the decisive condition for the development of the child's abilities is education and upbringing.

The problem of formation of abilities and talents is a big social and state problem. The task of the comprehensive development of abilities in all children is solved with the problem of developing special giftedness in especially talented people. The problem of giftedness is given great attention in our Republic. This is facilitated by the creation of centers for psychodiagnostics in all districts, cities and regions and the Republican - Center for Psychodiagnostics, which, of course, will help identify especially talented children and organize their education and upbringing.

The use of existing inclinations and abilities that have already proven themselves puts forward the task of their development in the process of specially organized training. Along with general education, special training for schoolchildren should also be organized, professionally orienting them in accordance with their inclinations and abilities to choose the type and type of occupation on a voluntary basis.

The solution to this problem is the creation of academic lyceums and - professional colleges, which are widely spread in our Republic. Professionalization of education with simultaneous differentiation according to abilities should be carried out in parallel and in addition to the general - educational program of education.

A modern specialist must have broad knowledge that determines his spirituality and culture.

Modern education in our Republic is aimed at establishing a person as the highest social value, revealing his abilities and meeting various educational needs, ensuring the priority of universal human values, harmony in relation to a person and the environment.

It is the integrated approach that is the distinguishing feature of the National Program for Personnel Training.

Psychological science occupies an important place in the implementation of the National Program for Personnel Training.

EMOTIONAL-VOLITIONAL PROPERTIES OF PERSONALITY 1§-FEELINGS AND EMOTIONS

Emotional life, human feelings – his joy, grief, anger, aspiration, love, excitement – have long attracted the attention and interest of people.

What is meant by feelings? This is a kind of reflection of reality, which expresses the subjective attitude of man to the world.

Feelings are a mental process in which a person experiences his personal, subjective attitude to certain phenomena of reality. Emotions are elementary mental experiences that arise in a person under the influence of the general state of the body and the course of the process of satisfying - needs. Feelings are a mental process, but also a mental state.

Feelings are characterized by the following three features: a) the - presence of a state of pleasure and displeasure (experience of pleasure when one has achieved some goal, displeasure when one fails); b) positive and negative feelings', c) the degree of nervous tension and the discharge of this tension.

It would be more correct to speak of four main peculiar qualities of emotional states: 1) a positive attitude of the individual to the object; 2) negative attitude; 3) and 4) dual (otherwise ambivalent) - (for example, a feeling of contentment and suffering at the same time - "I love and hate", "I enjoy and am ashamed", "separation is sweet sadness", "pleasant suffering"). The causes that give rise to feelings are called stimuli or sources of - feelings. According to the degree of activity, feelings can be divided into

sthenic ("steno" - Greek - from silt) and asthenic.

Sthenic (active) feelings are feelings that increase activity, increase a person's energy - general uplift, cheerfulness, joy, confidence, excitement, etc.

Asthenic feelings (passive) are carelessness, peace, complacency, timidity, uncertainty, sadness, despair, etc. Purely contemplative, passive feelings are otherwise called sentimentality

(an inactive feeling is in words, sighs, tears, but not in deeds). The state of emotional indifference, indifference and indivisibility is called apathy.

External expressions of feelings

These manifestations of feelings in all their various forms and shades are usually called expressive movements, "expressiveness" or expression.

Expression is a specific form of expression of feelings in the intonations of the voice, facial expressions, pantomime, gait, crying, laughter, etc.

Mimicry - expressive movements of a person's face, expressing his state or attitude to what he perceives (imagines, thinks, etc.).

Pantomime - expressive movements of the whole body, as well as gestures (movements of a person's hands, expressing the internal state and pointing to some object of the outside world), crying, laughter. Psychologist

R.S. Yankelevich conducted a study of how many shades of the expression of the eyes and smile of a person L.N. Tolstoy in the novel "War and Peace" (85 shades of eye gaze - cold, sad, envious, pensive, imploring, joyful, crafty, etc., 97 shades in a smile - shy, tender, arrogant, bitter, joyful, etc.).

Kinds of feelings

Feelings differ in the characteristics of their excitability and in their - content. Features of the excitability of feelings are expressed in speed, their strength and duration (stability). Speed - fast (outburst of anger, joy, resentment), slow (not immediately happy, not immediately scared), in strength - strong and weak, in stability - stable (lasts for a long time) and unstable. Strength and stability must be distinguished from depth - deep feelings are saturated with ideas, thoughts, aspirations. Shallow feelings are the so-called "hobbies". There are also the effectiveness of feelings - contemplative-sentimental and active, passionate. True love is a deep feeling.

Depending on the combination of speed, strength and sta-

bility of feelings, the following types of emotional states are distinguished:

I. Mood is an emotional state characterized by weak and medium strength and usually significant stability. A feature of the structure is ambiguity, poor awareness of the causes of their causes. It happens - cheerful, sad, sad, angry, depressed, good and bad mood.

II. Inspiration is an emotional state of great strength and aspiration to a certain goal, to a certain activity. It can be sometimes short-term, sometimes long-term.

III. Passion is a long and stable, but strong emotional state, with a strongly pronounced desire for certain actions, for certain objects (passion for knowledge, music, sports). There may also be negative passions (for gain, for alcohol, for gambling, etc.). Positive passions serve as a stimulus to a great, creative activity of a person. "Science demands great tension and great passion from man. Be passionate in your work, in your searches" (IP Pavlov).

IV. Affects are extremely strong, rapidly emerging and rapidly flowing short-term emotional states (despair, rage, horror, sometimes "numbness", etc.). Affects arise when the will is weakened and are an indicator of incontinence, a person's inability to self-control. It is wrong to think that a person is not conscious of his actions during the period of passion. Only patients cannot be aware of this state (insanity). In order to prevent affective states (outbursts), it is necessary to prevent it from starting. "Before giving in to a flash of anger, one must mentally count to ten." I.S. Turgenev advised a person who got too excited in a dispute and began to lose power over himself, to hold his tongue ten times inside the mouth before uttering a word. The psychological meaning of these tips is to delay the outbreak, divert attention, this can be chilling (the mind will take control of emotions).

V. Stress is an emotional state that is caused by situations of tension (Eng. stress - tension). These are human actions in

case of danger, with various mental and physical overloads, if necessary make quick and responsible decisions, in conditions of time pressure and lack of necessary information. The negative impact of a stressful situation on human activity up to complete destruction is called distress.

Difference of feelings by content

Depending on the content, feelings are divided into moral, intellectual, aesthetic and praxical .

Moral or ethical feelings are the feelings experienced by people in connection with the fulfillment or violation of the principles of morality accepted by this society. Such feelings can be moral (corresponding to moral views and rules) and immoral (violating the rules and inconsistent with these views).

Moral feelings include, first of all, a sense of patriotism - love for one's Motherland, national pride, deep respect for the native language, respect for the history, culture and traditions of the people, devotion to the ideals of independence, to the family, to the surrounding nature. This is a sense of moral duty - in relation to work, to one's people, to one's constitutional duties. This includes the feeling of friendship, comradeship (mutual sympathy and respect of people for each other, a feeling of love, love for the Motherland, for work, art, sports). It is the love of parents for children, children for parents. It is, finally, the love of a man for a woman. Love makes a person's life deeper, more valuable, and morally beautiful, transforms a person, captures his whole being, fills his heart, mind and will with deep content.

Feelings of shame and conscience also belong to this group. Conscience is an internal evaluative "voice" that says what is good and what is bad. She evaluates the act before it is committed.

Shame - a state of special internal awkwardness, anxiety, embarrassment (blushes, cannot look into the eyes).

Intellectual feelings are experienced by a person in the process of - cognitive activity. This is a feeling of bewilderment, surprise at a complex and still incomprehensible phenomenon, curiosity in

relation to the new, not yet known, confidence in the correctness of the conclusion, joy and pride in the discovery made, clarity of thought due to the ease or difficulty of the flow of our thoughts, a sense of the new, inherent man of our time.

Aesthetic feelings - positive feelings experienced in connection with the perception of beautiful objects, in connection with ideas and thoughts about them. These feelings are caused by nature, people, their life, activities. It is the experience of something beautiful. "Beautiful is life" (N.G. Chernyshevsky).

This is the perception of the beauties of nature, majestic spectacles - parades, celebrations, works of art - music, poetry, painting, etc.

Aesthetic feelings differ depending on the object or phenomenon that causes this feeling (perception of nature, works of art or technology, etc.), depending on their quality - sublime (the greatness of nature, the greatness of man and his actions, sublime virtue), beautiful depending on the content of the aesthetic experience - a sense of the heroic.

Praxic feelings (gr. *P r a x y* - business, activity, deed) - feelings caused by activity, its change in the course of work, its success or failure, the difficulties of its implementation, its completion.

§ EMOTIONS

A.N. Luks bring up to 70 different types of human feelings.

Sometimes people experience a complex condition known as an inferiority complex. It is associated with shortcomings of any qualities of a person (abilities, knowledge, skills, etc.), accompanied by deep negative emotional experiences. There are several theories of emotions about this.

Let's compare two theories - James Lange and Kennon Bard. Theory of W. James (American psychologist) and G. Lange (Danish psychologist) considers emotions as a subjective reflection of organic processes and asserts their derivative nature from the processes occurring in the body. First, under the influence of

external stimuli, characteristic changes occur in the body, and only then, as a result, does emotion arise. "We are sad because we cry, we are afraid because we tremble, we rejoice because we laugh."

The theory of emotions by American psychologists Kennon and Bard considers emotions as the result of processing signals that enter the brain from the external and internal environment. These signals generate emotions and the organic changes that accompany them. Bard proved that both bodily changes and emotional experiences occur almost simultaneously.

American psychologists Yerkes - Dodson a law has been established - a curvilinear bell-shaped connection that exists between the strength of - emotional excitement and the success of human activity. It shows that the most productive human activity occurs at a moderate optimal level of excitation.

Emotions and feelings are all traits we share as humans. According to an article in the publication *Psychology Today*, "emotions are multi-faceted experiences" of "internal subjective experiences, facial expressions and physiological reactions." Teasing out the feelings and emotions that people have, and learning why they have them, is an important role for mental health professionals.

Feelings versus Emotions

Many people use the terms "feeling" and "emotion" as synonyms, but they are not interchangeable. While they have similar elements, there is a marked difference between feelings and emotions.

Feelings. Both emotional experiences and physical sensations - such as hunger or pain - bring about feelings, according to *Psychology Today*. Feelings are a conscious experience, although not every conscious experience, such as seeing or believing, is a feeling, as explained in the article.

Emotions. According to *Psychology Today*, an emotion "can only ever be felt...through the emotional experiences it gives rise to, even though it might be discovered through its as-

sociated thoughts, beliefs, desires, and actions.” Emotions are not conscious but instead manifest in the unconscious mind. These emotions can be brought to the surface of the conscious state through extended psychotherapy.

A fundamental difference between feelings and emotions is that feelings are experienced consciously, while emotions manifest either consciously or subconsciously. Some people may spend years, or even a lifetime, not understanding the depths of their emotions.

Range of Emotions

Throughout life, humans experience many emotions. This range of emotions is impacted by such factors as their behavior, the culture they come from, and their previous traumatic experiences.

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How Culture Shapes Emotions

According to an article from the Association for Psychological Science (APS), research conducted by APS Fellow Jeanne Tsai at Stanford University shows most people want to “feel more positive than negative.” Yet the emotions that cause a positive experience are shown to change between cultures, according to the APS article. For example, the positive emotions that “European Americans typically preferred [were] excitement and elation” while Chinese populations “preferred calm and relaxation

more.” This difference is seen in media such as advertising, which utilizes the positive experience emotions to craft messages for maximum impact.

How Traumatic Experiences Impact Emotions

Traumatic experiences impact emotions both in the moment and over the long term. According to Psychology Today, “whatever the source, trauma leaves its imprint on the brain.” For example, a study published in Neuroscience and Biobehavioral Reviews found a link between greater brain activity in areas that process fear and post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD). According to Psychology Today, traumatic experiences impact our emotions, causing PTSD flashbacks, nightmares and increased fear, anxiety, anger, sadness and guilt.

§ WILL

Volition or will is the cognitive process by which an individual decides on and commits to a particular course of action. It is defined as purposive striving and is one of the primary human psychological functions. Others include affect (feeling or emotion), motivation (goals and expectations), and cognition (thinking). Volitional processes can be applied consciously or they can be automatized as habits over time.

Most modern conceptions of volition address it as a process of conscious action control which becomes automatized (e.g. see Heckhausen and Kuhl; Gollwitzer; Boekaerts and Corno).

Willpower and volition are colloquial and scientific terms (respectively) for the same process. When a person makes up their mind to do a thing, that state is termed ‘immanent volition’. When we put forth any particular act of choice, that act is called an emanant, executive, or imperative volition. When an immanent or settled state of choice controls or governs a series of actions, that state is termed predominant volition.

Subordinate volitions are particular acts of choice which carry into effect the object sought for by the governing or predominant volition.

According to Gary Kielhofner's "Model of Human Occupation", volition is one of the three sub-systems that act on human behavior. Within this model, volition refers to a person's values, interests and self-efficacy (personal causation) about personal performance.

In the book *A Bias for Action*, the authors' purpose is to differentiate willpower from motivation - the authors use the term volition as a synonym for willpower and describe briefly the theories of Kurt Lewin. While Lewin argues that motivation and volition are one and the same, the authors claim that Narzib Ach argues differently. According to the authors, Ach claims that there is a certain threshold of desire that distinguishes motivation from volition: when desire lies below this threshold, it is motivation, and when it crosses over, it becomes volition. Using this model, the authors consider individuals' differing levels of commitment with regard to tasks by measuring it on a scale of intent from motivation to volition. Modern writing on the role of volition, including discussions of impulse control (e.g., Kuhl and Heckhausen) and education (e.g., Corno), also make this distinction. Corno's model ties volition to the processes of self-regulated learning.

Will is the activity of a person, manifested in the implementation of deliberate actions aimed at achieving consciously set goals, overcoming difficulties.

Volitional processes are closely connected with movements and actions. Movements can be involuntary (instinctive, reflex - coughing, sneezing, blinking, etc.) and voluntary.

When we consider the movements that people make, there is a fundamental distinction between reflexes and voluntary acts. Reflex movements occur completely out with our control. For example, we cannot make our pupil contract by thought alone and we cannot stop it contracting when it is illuminated. In contrast, a voluntary act involves a movement that we can choose to make (or not), deliberately and by thought alone. There are, of course, movements that lie between these two ex-

tremes. For example, we can choose to blink, but we cannot stop a blink occurring as a reflexive response to a puff of air to the eye. Nevertheless, we experience most of the actions in our daily repertoire as voluntary.

However, defining voluntary acts as behavior over which we have control leads to many deep philosophical problems. In what sense do we control our behavior? Does such control imply the possibility of mental causation and the existence of free will?

The volitional process is either the performance of an action or the retention from the performance of a particular movement.

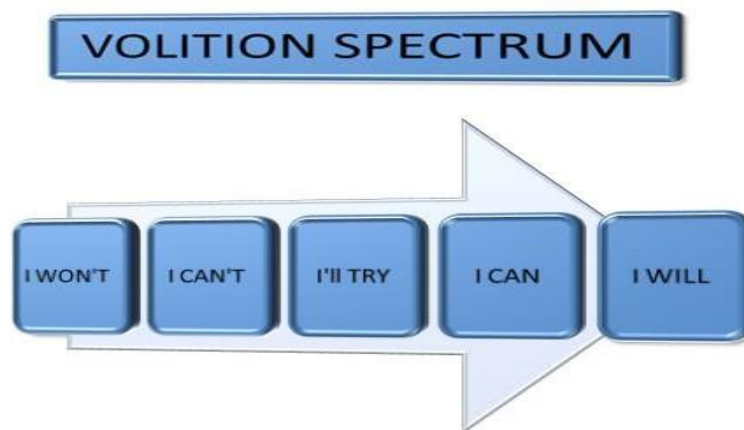
Voluntary movements are conscious movements they are characterized by the following points - the presence of motivation, the presentation of the goals of the action, the presentation of the means necessary to achieve the intended goals, the intention to carry out this action, volitional effort and self-action.

The will performs two functions: stimulating and inhibitory (holding - back undesirable manifestations of activity). The experience of effort, which is a subjective component of volitional action, is called volitional effort. A pathological violation of the mental regulation of human actions is called abulia (lack of will).

Types of volitional acts

Distinguish between *a simple volitional act, a complex and volitional act* in extreme conditions.

A simple act of will is choosing a goal and immediately solving the problem.



Theories of will

A complex volitional act has the following structure:

a) awareness of aspiration - this stage is divided into certain levels - attraction (a desire in which only dissatisfaction with the present is realized, but the goal is not realized. As the poet wrote: "An unknown force is drawing me somewhere"); desire (the goal is realized, but the ways and means of achieving it are not realized); desire (quite conscious desire);

b) the choice of goals and means - the struggle of motives (the process of choosing goals and means, substantiating them, sometimes happens as an internal struggle - the student needs to prepare homework and he hears how the ball hits loudly - his team plays. Between these two goals - prepare homework or go to play football, there is a fight and some decision is made on the basis of it);

c) making a decision

d) execution of the decision - often the decision remains unfulfilled, this phenomenon is called intention.

In behaviorism, the corresponding forms of behavior are studied, in the psychology of motivation, intrapersonal conflicts and ways to overcome them are in the center of attention, in personality psychology, the main attention is focused on the identification and study of the corresponding volitional characteristics of the personality. The concept, which has been developed in recent years, considers human behavior as initially active, and the person himself as endowed with the ability to consciously choose his forms. The latest physiology of higher nervous activity (N.A. Bernstein and

P.K. Anokhin) reinforces and supports this point of view.

V.M. Selivanov defines will as a person's conscious regulation of his behavior in the ability to see and overcome internal and external obstacles in the way of purposeful actions and actions.

It should be noted that psychologists also distinguish peo-

ple by the fact to whom or what they tend to attribute responsibility for their own actions - external forces or their own efforts. This phenomenon is called "localization of control". "Locus of control" (place of control) was introduced by the American psychologist Y. Rotter .

An external locus of control (otherwise it is defined by the term external) attributes responsibility for one’s own actions to external causes. For example, he did not complete the task because guests came and - interfered with preparing for the report.

Internal locus of control (internal) - attributes responsibility for one’s actions to one’s own efforts. For example, forgetfulness, attention was distracted, there were not enough abilities.

Let’s compare the features of people depending on the locus of control.

Scheme 1. *Characteristics of people depending on the locus of control*

<i>External</i> locus of control	<i>Interior</i> locus of control
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Uncertainty in one’s own abilities. 2. Inconsistency in actions. 	Self-confidence. Consistency. Perseverance in achieving the goal.
The desire to postpone the implementation of their intentions for an indefinite period. <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 4. Unbalance. 5. Anxiety. 6. Suspicion. 7. Aggressiveness. 8. Conformity . 	Balance. Sociability. Tendency to introspection. Goodwill. Independence. Great responsibility for your actions.

Will Qualities:

a) strength will - strong, weak. Strong - determination, self-control, courage, perseverance, endurance, patience. Weak - extreme relaxation, as already indicated, this is abulia.

b) the morality of the will - what motives cause volitional aspirations, what principles people are guided by when making this or that decision.

Suggestibility (lack of critical will). Consequently, the psychological

c) independence of will - initiative, consciousness. Responsibility, the ability to critically understand the opinions of people. Lack of independence

- suggestibility, negativism, stubbornness.

Negativism is a person's demonstrative opposition to other people, his rejection of reasonable advice from other people.

Stubbornness is a motivated opposition.

characteristics of a person of strong will are adherence to principles (strict and constant adherence to rules, norms of behavior), criticality (opposition of easy suggestibility and a tendency to act thoughtlessly); constancy and perseverance; decisiveness (manifested in depth, adherence to principles and speed of decision-making).

The main means that are important for the development of the will of the students are subordination (fulfillment of certain assignments at the - direction and under the guidance of elders); imitating the actions of others; leadership by adults in amateur performance in the performance of arbitrary actions ; self-education of the will.

COGNITIVE PROCESSES. ATTENTION, SENSATIONS, PERCEPTION, MEMORY, THINKING, IMAGINATION.

§ ATTENTION

It is apparently difficult to find another such concept, as familiar to everyday consciousness and at the same time having such a complex and dramatic fate in psychology, as the concept of "attention".

It is difficult to find another concept whose history would be replete with such sharp "ups and downs", such sharp turns in the interpretation of its content, its place and significance among other psychological concepts. It, then for a while, became at the very center of the system of psychology, then suddenly, on the contrary, it was declared a "fiction" and "a source of pseudo - problems" and completely eliminated from psychology.

What is attention?

Attention is the focus and concentration of human consciousness on certain objects, while simultaneously distracting from others. The implementation of the selection of the necessary information, the provision of electoral programs of action and the maintenance of constant control over their course is usually called attention.

Unlike cognitive processes (sensations, perceptions, memory, thinking, imagination), attention has no special content of its own. It manifests itself, as it were, within mental processes and is inseparable from them, characterizing the dynamics of their course. Attention is always included in the practical activity of a person and is a necessary condition for its successful course; the learning process cannot proceed successfully without sufficient concentration of students.

There are usually three groups of factors that play a significant role in attracting attention:

The first group is associated with the nature of the stimulus. First of all, the stimulus must be strong enough, the factor of novelty, unusualness, which is based on the orienting reflex (the

“What is” reflex), is of no small importance .

The second group is associated with a certain ratio of the stimulus and human needs (factors that depend not on the external environment, but on the subject himself - his needs, interests).

The third group of factors that play an important role in attracting - attention is the dependence of attention on the structural organization of human activity. Attention is primarily drawn to an action aimed at a known goal. Thus, attention is determined by the structure of activity, reflects its course and serves as a mechanism for its control.

To a large extent, attention is determined by the success or failure of the activity. Successful completion of the job terminates the attention state. On the contrary, unfinished activity causes a prolonged tension of attention.

Physiological mechanisms of attention

For a long time, psychologists and physiologists have tried to describe the mechanisms that determine the selective course of excitation processes and underlie attention.

However, for a long time these attempts were limited to pointing to this or that factor and were more of a descriptive character than the character of a - true isolation of the physiological mechanisms of attention.

An early statement by I.P. Pavlov, who likened attention (and clear consciousness) to the center of optimal excitation, moving along the cerebral cortex like a "moving light spot". The idea of COE (center of optimal excitation) as the basis of attention seemed to be very important later on and led to some essential physiological mechanisms of attention.

A significant contribution to the analysis of the physiological mechanisms of attention was made by the remarkable Russian physiologist

A.A. Ukhtomsky. According to his ideas, excitation is distributed unevenly throughout the nervous system , and each activity can create centers of optimal excitation in the nervous sys-

tem, which acquire a dominant character. These are the foci that A.A. Ukhtomsky designated by the term dominants, not only dominate over others and inhibit other foci existing along with them, but even acquire the ability to intensify under the influence of extraneous excitations.

This ability of the dominant to inhibit side reflexes and even increase under the influence of extraneous stimuli was evaluated by A.A. Ukhtomsky as a process resembling attention, and this is what gave him reason to regard the dominant as a physiological mechanism of attention. The contribution of the "dominant" theory to the analysis of the physiological mechanisms of the selective course of excitations is beyond doubt. However, it remains to be found specific ways on which certain types of human electoral activity are built and those neurophysiological systems that underlie it. This work has been carried out by neurophysiologists over the past 20–30 years, beginning in the 1960s .

Modern studies of the neurophysiological mechanisms of attention have revealed that the selective nature of the course of mental processes characteristic of attention can only be ensured by a waking state of the cortex, for which an optimal level of excitability is typical.

The leading role of cortical mechanisms in the regulation of attention has been established.

To determine the physiological mechanisms of attention, - electrophysiological indicators (of the transition from sleep to wakefulness) are essential:

- a) shifts of a biochemical nature (increased oxygen exchange);
- b) vascular changes (rhythm of cardiac activity, narrowing of peripheral and expansion of cerebral vessels);
- c) change in muscle tone, for example, neck muscles;
- d) GSR (skin-galvanic reflex) - increased electrical conductivity of the -
skin;

e) activation - exacerbation of sensitivity, motor acts are accelerated, conditioned connections are quickly and accurately developed.

Attention Properties

The attention of different people and the same person, but at different times and under different conditions, differs in some features, or properties, on which the course of mental processes depends, as well as human activity itself. Characterizing attention, its properties are distinguished: concentration, intensity, distribution, volume, stability, fluctuation, and switching.

The most important properties of attention can be presented in the following table:

Strength		Latitude		Dynamism	
concentration	intensity	volume	distribution	sustainability	hesitation

Scheme 2. Properties of attention

As can be seen from the table, the strength of attention is characterized by its concentration and intensity.

Concentration (concentration) - focusing attention on a particular object (for example, reading an interesting book) A high degree of concentration of attention contributes to an in-depth study of the object.

In different activities, attention usually proceeds with varying degrees of intensity (strength). It is well known that the intensity of attention of the same person at different times is different (compare, for example, the attention of a student to a subject before and after passing the exam). Differences in the degree of intensity of attention largely depend on the significance of the object, interest in it, and so on.

The breadth of attention is characterized by its volume and distribution.

The scope of attention is determined by the number of ob-

jects that can be in the field of attention at the same time. The scope of attention provides a quick and deep understanding of the whole. The volume of attention when presenting disparate objects for a short time through the device tachistoscope (takhis - quickly, scopeo - look) is equal to $5 + 2$, i.e. from 3 to 7 objects.

The distribution of attention is expressed in the ability of a person to - simultaneously hold several objects, activities or actions in the sphere of attention. This feature is based on the ability to listen and, at the same time, record the material at the lecture.

Such a distribution of attention is possible when one of the human actions is performed consciously and the rest in an automated way.

Dynamic attention characterizes its stability, switching and oscillation.

The sustainability of attention determines how strongly the general focus of attention is maintained for a long time. Sustainability implies a change in objects and nature of actions while maintaining the overall direction of work. For example, when writing an essay, attention is consistently focused on reading, presenting the main content, using quotes, etc., while maintaining the overall focus of all these activities on getting the job done.

The fluctuation of attention is its periodic weakening with subsequent strengthening. The fluctuating attention explains the fact that the repetition of even well-known material always reveals something new.

Therefore, it is never recommended to limit you to reading a textbook once when preparing a lesson at school.

Switching attention is a transition from one object to another in connection with a change in the tasks of an activity. So, in the course of the lesson, students constantly have to switch their attention from one educational issue to another. The speed of switching largely depends on the degree of - concentration as well as on such factors as interest in the lesson, its importance

for the student, etc.

There is a legend that Julius Caesar had the ability to listen to one thing, talk about another, read about a third, and think about a fourth. Most likely, Caesar had a good switch of attention.

Types of attention

In psychology, three types of attention are distinguished: involuntary, voluntary and post-voluntary. This division is made in terms of two criteria: the presence or absence of a conscious goal and volitional effort. Involuntary attention is characterized by the fact that it manifests itself independently of conscious intention and volitional effort, being conditioned by direct interest, novelty, colorfulness, brightness, contrast, magnitude, mobility, suddenness, discontinuity of signals, the emotional attractiveness of the stimulus. Involuntary attention, in essence, is an orienting reflex to novelty, which is based on the mechanism of the natural occurrence of a focus of dominant excitation.

On the basis of attracting involuntary attention, advertising activities, the psychology of fashion, the psychology of propaganda and the methodology for using visualization in teaching are built.

Arbitrary attention is characterized by the presence of a goal and voluntary effort. Arbitrary attention is consciously directed and regulated by the subject in accordance with the tasks to be solved. However, voluntary attention requires volitional efforts from a person, it requires large energy - costs.

How long can a person act under conditions of voluntary attention? The answer to this question was determined in the study by M.Kh. Rakhmanova, found that at primary school age (I - III classes), arbitrary attention can be focused for no more than 10 minutes. At student's age, it can be extended to 20-22 minutes. After that, there are signs of distraction, fatigue.

Therefore, there was a need to find a way to somehow relieve this tension. Moscow psychologist N.F. Dobrynin proposed

the concept of post - voluntary attention. A variety of voluntary attention arising on its basis was called post -voluntary attention, which also has a deliberate purposeful - character and at the same time no longer requires volitional efforts. It is regulated by a consciously adopted attitude towards the solution of a certain problem, by the enthusiasm for the solution process.

Post -voluntary attention is characterized by the highest concentration and is a necessary condition for successful activity.

The role of post-voluntary attention in educational activity is especially great.

Comparative characteristics of the types of attention are presented in the following table:

Kinds attention	Terms occurrence	Main characteristics	Mechanisms
Arbitrary	goal setting (task acceptance)	Orientation according to the task. Requires willpower, tires with prolonged concentration	The leading role of the second signaling system
Post- voluntary	"Entry" into the activity and the resulting interest	Purposefulness is maintained, tension is relieved, there is a kind of "second wind"	Dominantly characterizing the interest that has arisen in the course of activity

Involuntary	The action of a strong or significant and emotionally responsive stimulus	Involuntariness, ease of occurrence, switching and termination	An orienting reflex or a dominant that characterizes a more or less stable interest of a person
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Scheme 3. Types of attention

What are the conditions for stability and intensity of attention?

Let's briefly state these conditions:

- 1) The state of the nervous system; 2) The content of the object; 3) the content of the activity; 4) The environment in which this activity takes place;
- 5) Experience of certain feelings; 6) Volitional efforts; 7) Installation; 8) Interest.

The process of age-related development of attention, according to

A.N. Leontiev, can be represented as follows: with age, the child's attention improves, but the development of externally mediated attention is much faster than the development of it as a whole, especially internal attention.

According to observations and experimental studies, the stages of development of children's attention are as follows:

- 1) The first weeks and months of life; The manifestation of the orienting reflex as an objective, innate sign of the child's involuntary attention.
- 2) The end of the first year of life; The emergence of orienting-research activity as a means of future development of voluntary attention.
- 3) The beginning of the second year of life; detection of the beginnings of voluntary attention under the influence of verbal instructions of an adult, the direction of gaze on an object named by an adult.

4) Second - third year of life; a fairly good development of the above- mentioned initial form of voluntary attention.

5) Four and a half - five years; the emergence of the ability to direct attention under the influence of complex instruction from an adult.

6) Five - six years; the emergence of an elementary form of voluntary - attention under the influence of self-instruction (with reliance on external aids).

7) School age; Further development and improvement of voluntary attention, including volitional.⁶

The development of attention in certain activities can lead to the formation of such a personality quality as observation. No wonder the great physiologist I.P. Pavlov, on the pediment of his laboratory building in Koltushi near St. Petersburg, inscribed the following words: "Observation, observation and observation."

§ *SENSATIONS*

Reality, which surrounds us and acts on us, has various properties.

A property is a property of an object. A trait is what distinguishes one object from another.

These properties are directly reflected in our consciousness through the sense organs (sight, hearing, smell, touch, etc.). This elementary mental process, which is a subjective reflection in the form of mental phenomena of individual properties of the surrounding world when they act on the sense organs, is caused by sensation.

What is needed for a sensation to arise?

1) For this, an object is needed that acts on any sense organ. Since the action of an object is expressed in irritation of the terminal branches of the sensory nerve, this object, phenomenon, their properties are called irritants. For example, light, color, sound, skin touch, smell, sweetness, bitterness, etc.

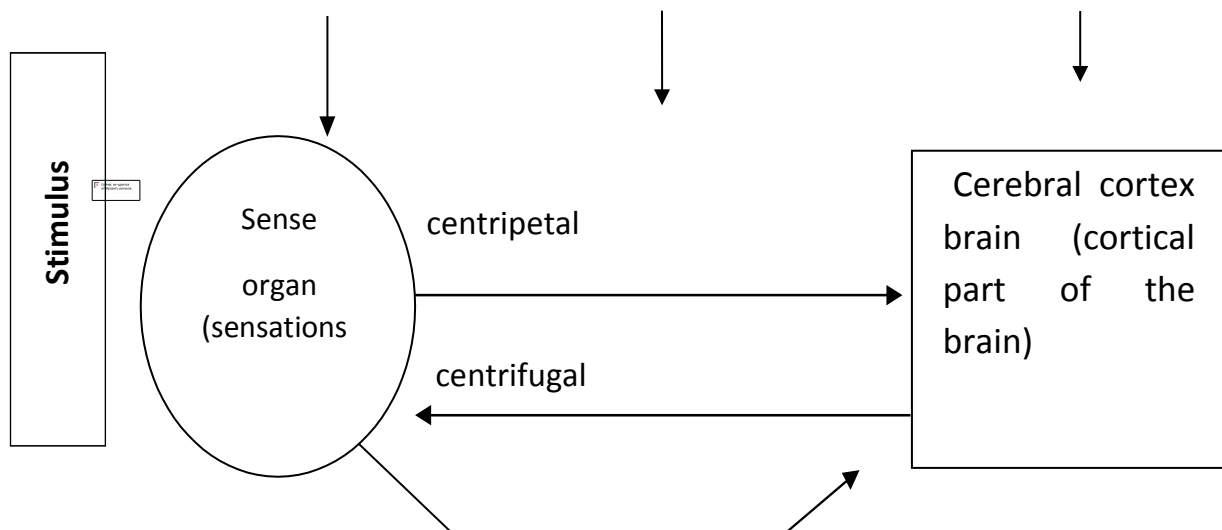
2) A sensing apparatus is needed. It consists of a sense

organ (more precisely, a sense organ) - a receptor that conducts pathways (part of the - sensory nerve), along which the excitation is transmitted from the peripheral endings of the nerve to the center, otherwise the centripetal nerve; corresponding areas of the cerebral cortex, where nervous excitation turns into mental zeal - sensation.

The process of feeling imagined scheme.

1. Physical process (irritation) process (excitation) transformation of external energy.

stimulus into the fact of consciousness channel-back connections



Scheme 4. The process of sensations

These three mechanisms that eliver one perceiving apparatus, I.P. Pavlov called the analyzer. In the process of sensation, it is necessary to distinguish the following points:

- a) stimulus - a physical property of objects and phenomena that affects the sense organs;
- b) irritation - the very fact of exposure to the stimulus (physical process);
- c) excitation - a physiological process that occurs under the influence of an irritant;
- d) sensation - a mental process that is a product of the

higher parts of the brain in connection with the receipt of stimuli from the outside.

A person is aware of what affects him, reflects the qualities of objects and phenomena.

The sensation process is carried out as a system of sensory actions aimed at selecting and transforming the energy of external stimulation and providing an adequate reflection of the objective world.

Receptors are divided into extroreceptors (receptors located on external organs), introreceptors (receptors located on internal organs) and proprioceptors (receptors located on muscles, joints, and tendons).

About the colossal multiplicity of sensations, as evidence of the continuous constant transformation of the energy of the external world into the fact of consciousness, an approximate answer was given by I.M. Sechenov.

Taking the state of wakefulness for 12 hours and putting an average of 5 seconds for each phase, for example, of a visual sensation, he calculated that more than 8,000 sensations would enter through the eye, no less through the ear, and incomparably more through muscle movements. In one week this will amount to 56 thousand, in a month - 224 thousand, in a year 2 million, 688 thousand, in 60 years (if we take an average) 160 million sensory units.

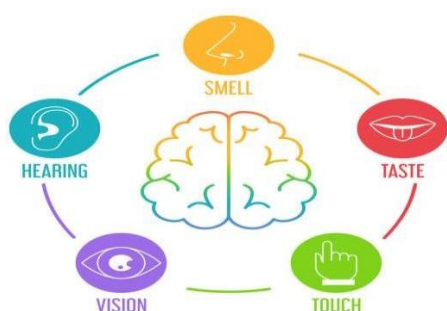
All these colossal masses of sensations are associated according to various signs, synthesized in acts of perception, fixed in the form of trace phenomena, in the form of representations, and are included in generalized groups in the composition of mental acts.

All human sensations are classified according to the following criteria:

1. Extroceptive sensations, reflecting the properties of objects and phenomena of the external world. These sensations can be contact and distant. These include visual, auditory, olfactory, taste and skin sensations (tactile, temperature, tactile).

2. Introceptive sensations - reflecting various states of internal organs (organic, painful).
3. Proprioceptive sensations, reflecting various states of the organs of movement (musculo-motor - kinesthetic and balance).

EXTEROCEPTIVE SENSATIONS

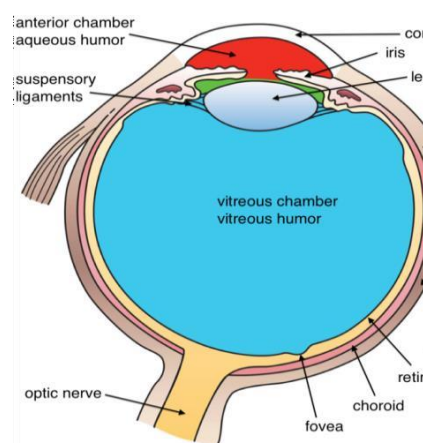


1. Exteroceptive sensations include.

Visual sensations. The organ is the eye. The eye consists of three membranes: external, vascular and reticular. The outer in front passes into the cornea, the vascular into the rainbow (the color of which determines the eyes as black, brown, blue, etc.). The iris has a hole, the hole is the pupil, through which light passes into the inside of the eye.

Behind the pupillary opening and the iris there is a biconvex transparent body - the lens. This is a light refracting device. The third shell - the retina, consists of cones (7 million of them) located in the center (daylight and chromatic colors) to the rod apparatus (123 million) located on the periphery of the retina (twilight light, achromatic colors). The largest accumulation of rods and cones is the yellow spot. The blind spot is the exit of the nerve; there

are no rods and cones at all. Between the retina and the



lens, the entire inner surface of the eye is the vitreous body. The physical cause of visual sensations is light waves (electromagnetic waves of different lengths and different frequencies of oscillation). Waves up to 380 millimicrons - ultraviolet, over 780 millimicrons - and infrared. The human eye does not feel them.

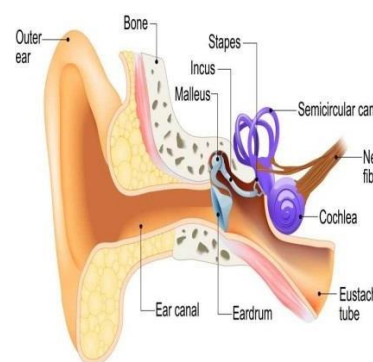
Colors are divided into achromatic (black white, intermediate gray) and chromatic (colored - red, orange, yellow, blue, indigo, violet).

The visual sensations of chromatic colors are characterized by the following properties: a) light tone (depending on the wavelength);

b) lightness - the degree of difference of a given color from black, determined by the reflection coefficient, i.e. what percentage of light is reflected (white paper reflects 85%, black velvet - 0.03%); c) saturation - the degree of difference of a given color from gray of the same lightness with it.

Special phenomena in visual sensations - light contrast - simultaneous - and sequential; light blindness when the rod apparatus does not work well ("night blindness"); color blindness - for example, color blindness (decrease in red). The center of visual sensations is the occipital lobes of the cerebral cortex.

Hearing sensations - the sensation of sounds (musical and noise). The organ is the ear. The outer ear is the auricle and ear canal. The middle ear is the tympanic membrane with three bones attached to it: the hammer, anvil and stirrup (they serve to transmit vibrations to the inner ear).

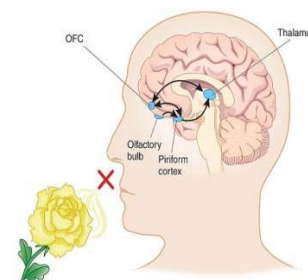


The middle ear is connected to the mouth and nose by the Eustachian tube. The inner ear - it consists of three compartments : 3 semicircular canals, the vestibule and the cochlea. All of them are filled with fluid - endolymph. Inside the cochlea is the organ of Corti, its base is a membrane with fibers connected to the auditory nerves.

The physical reason is the movement of air waves, which are caused by vibrations of sounding bodies (from 16-20 to 20-22 thousand vibrations per second). Sounds over 20-22 thousand Hertz are ultrasounds (a dog, for example, hears sounds over 20 thousand), below 16-20 are infrasounds. The human ear does not hear ultra and infrasounds. The brain center of hearing is the temporal lobes of the cerebral cortex.

Qualities of sound sensations: a) pitch (number of vibrations per second); b) strength - loudness, intensity; c) the timbre of sound is a special quality that distinguishes equal in frequency and intensity, but different in composition, additional vibrations. Simple sounds are called tones, musical sounds (complex) consist of a fundamental tone and accompanying ones (over-tones), which is called the bromine.

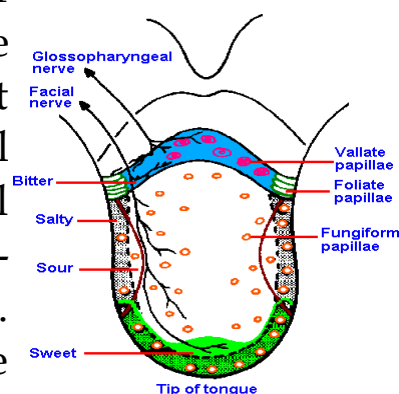
Smelling sensation - Organ: the upper part of the nasal cavity, where the olfactory cells and ramifications of the sensory nerve are located. Smells are classified by subject - the smell of lilac ether, etc.

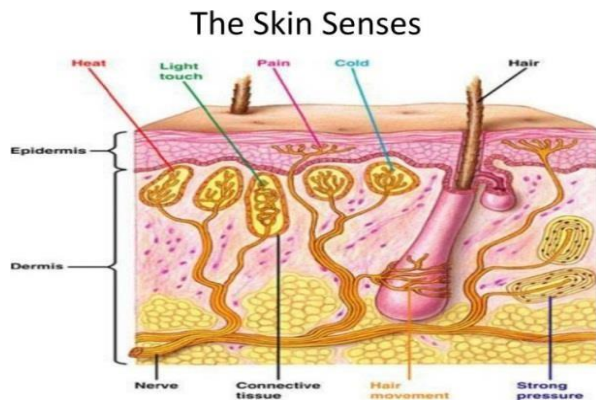


The physical reason is gaseous substances that enter the nose with air and act on the cells of the olfactory receptor.

The center of smell is located in the lower part of the back surface (at the base of the brain).

Taste sensations - sensations of sweet, bitter, sour, salty. Organ - the surface of the tongue and the soft part of the palate (where special taste buds are located). The physical causes of taste sensations are substances dissolved in water or saliva. The center of taste is located near the center of smell.





Skin sensations: temperature, tactile. Temperature sensations - sensations of heat and cold, when the properties of an object come into contact with the skin surface.

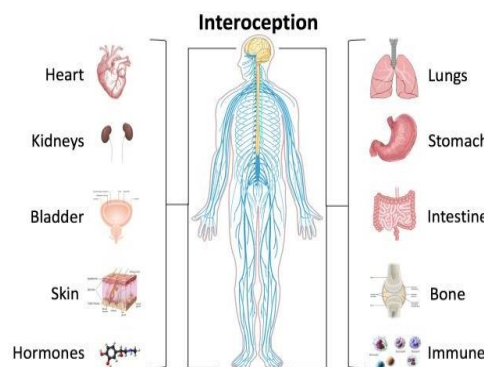
The physical cause is skin contact with other bodies. There are about

250 thousand cold points on the surface of the skin, 30 thousand points perceived as warm.

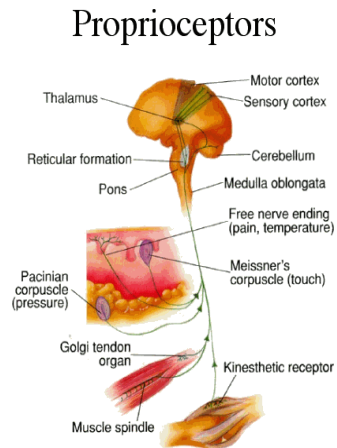
Tactile sensations are sensations of touch and pressure. Organs are special tactile bodies located in the skin and outer mucous membrane. They are unevenly spaced. On average, 25 points per 1 sq.cm. They are most of all on the fingertips, the tip of the tongue, on the lips. The measurement with the esthesiometer showed that on the fingertip, at a distance of 1-2 mm, a touch of 2 points is felt, and on the skin of the back - at a distance 60 mm.

Together with the muscular sensations of the hand, tactile sensation is considered as touch. The brain center of skin sensations is located in the posterior central gyrus of the cerebral cortex.

Interceptive or organic sensations - sensations of hunger, thirst, saturation of health, illness, cheerfulness, fatigue - sensations of the state of our body or its individual members.



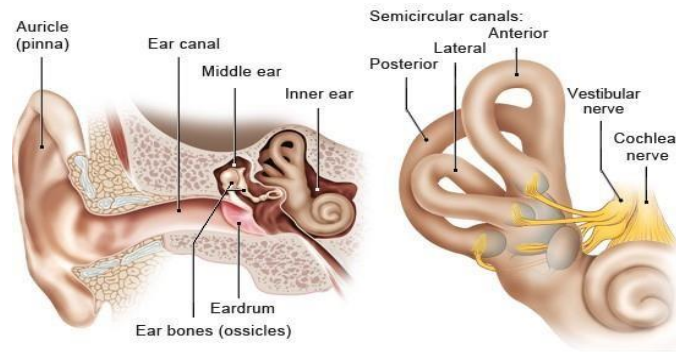
2. Proprioceptive or musculo-skeletal sensations (kinesthetic). External causes - contraction and relaxation of muscles, tendons when performing movements, as well as mechanical effects on our muscles from objects. Organs - muscles, tendons and articular surfaces with the ramifications of special sensitive nerves.



Musculoskeletal sensations play a huge role in providing the required coordination when performing complex movements. Receptors are in the walls of internal organs. The physical cause is a variety of chemical and mechanical stimuli in the internal organs. Organic sensations are distinguished by a vague character, undifferentiated.

Pain sensations have an external cause - physical and chemical processes that occur in organs and tissues when they are destroyed or damaged.

Receptors are the endings of sensory nerves in the skin, mucous membranes, and also in the internal organs. Feeling of balance. The organ is the vestibular apparatus, located on the threshold of the inner ear, and consists of the semicircular canals and the otolith apparatus (otoliths are stones floating in the endolymph). External causes are rectilinear and angular accelerations, the centrifugal forces that develop in this case change the direction of the center of gravity of the body during displacements in space. The brain center is in the temporal lobes of the brain. The vestibular apparatus helps to control your body at speeds of movement and gives accurate information - impulses and sensations when performing movements with your muscular apparatus. The functions of the vestibular apparatus are sharply disturbed during movements with unusual accelerations (in weightlessness).



Feelings have a number of characteristics and patterns:

1. Speed and duration. The beginning of the action of the stimulus on the receptor and the appearance of the sensation do not coincide in time: the sensation occurs only after a certain time - from 0.02 to 0.1 seconds. The duration depends on the duration of the irritation. The end of the sensation and the end of the action of the stimulus also do not coincide in time. The action of the stimulus ceases, but the sensation continues (if the vibration of the string is interrupted, the sensation of sound continues for some time). Such delayed sensations are called afterimages or successive images. Their duration is from

0.05 to 1 second. Sequential images can be positive (the color of the object in the example with film frames does not change) and negative (if you look at a black square for 10–15 seconds, then a white square will be visible in this place, lighter than the background).

2. Thresholds move your gaze to a black dot of sensations. Feelings can have varying degrees of strength. The strength of sensations depends on the strength of the stimulus. Not every irritation causes sensation (subthreshold stimuli).

The smallest irritation in strength or magnitude that causes a barely noticeable (first) sensation is called the lower absolute threshold of sensation (for example, 6 gram sugar in a glass of tea is felt for the first time as sweet). That maximum value of stimulation, beyond which a given sensation ceases, despite the continued effect of the stimulus, is called the upper absolute - threshold of sensation. In such cases, the sensation of this quality

usually turns into pain.

The absolute sensitivity of the analyzer is characterized by a value inversely proportional to the lower absolute threshold of sensation. It is measured by a special formula:

$$E = \frac{\text{one}}{R}$$

where E - sensitivity,

R-lower absolute threshold of sensation

With a change in the strength of the stimulus (increase or decrease), the strength of the sensation also changes. But not every change in the strength of the stimulus causes a change in the strength of the sensation. That smallest change in the strength of the stimulus, which causes a barely noticeable change in the strength of sensation, is called the difference threshold of sensation, or the threshold of discrimination. To change the strength of sensation, it is necessary to add 1/10 in auditory sensations, 1/100 in visual sensations, 1/3 in taste, and 1/30 of the severity of the previous stimulus. Weber and Fechner defined the law, stating that the strength of sensation is proportional to the logarithm of the stimulus. "Sensations change (increase or decrease) in an arithmetic progression, and the corresponding changes in the stimulus occur in a geometric progression."

For example, if the strength of sensation is 1, and the strength of irritation is 2, then the table of this dependence looks like this:

1 - 2 or 2^1

2 - 4 or 2^2

3 - 8 or 2^3

4 - 16 or 2^4

5 - 32 or 2^5

In the second edition, this law states: "Sensation is equal to the logarithm of irritation." The formula of this law is:

$$S = K \lg I + C$$

where S is the strength of sensation,
 C and K are constants,
 I is the magnitude of the stimulus.

The sensations are characterized by the following features: adaptation, - sensitization and synesthesia.

Adaptation is the adaptation of the sense organs to the characteristics of the stimuli acting on them in order to better perceive and protect the receptors from excessive overload (adaptation to darkness, light, smells, etc.).

Sensitization is an increase in the sensitivity of the sense organs as a - result of the interaction of analyzers and exercises (for example, an increase in visual acuity under the influence of sound stimuli).

Synesthesia is the ability of an irritant, turned by nature into a sensory organ adapted for it, to simultaneously evoke a sensation in another sensory organ (the merging of two sensations into something single) - "color hearing", "warm color", "soft sound". Under the influence of the requirements of life and activity, a change in sensitivity occurs. The development of sensations depends on the requirements of life, first of all, the activity in which a person is engaged. (For example, textile workers specializing in the production of black fabrics can distinguish up to 40 shades of black, an experienced miller using touch determines the quality of flour (place, year of grain cultivation).

Compensation of some organs by others is possible. Example: Olga Skorokhodova, a deaf-blind-mute who became a research worker, is the author of the well-known book "How I perceive, imagine and understand the world around us."

§ PERCEPTION

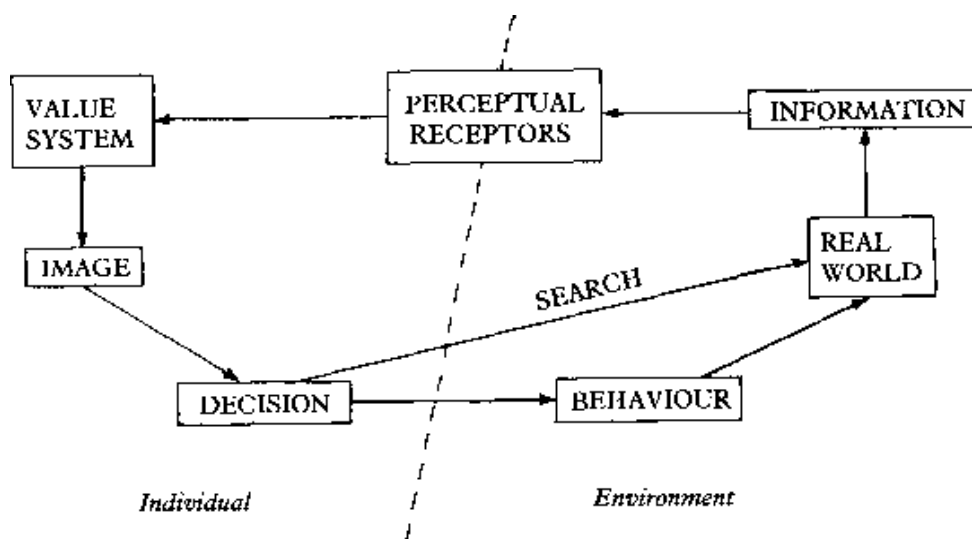
Perception is a form of mental reflection of objects and phenomena with their direct impact on the senses.

In perception, one should distinguish: a) the process of perception, in which the formation of the image is completed; b) the subjective image of the perceived object - a generalized picture of the world (objects and phenomena) resulting from the processing of information coming from the senses.

The characteristic features of perception are objectivity, integrity, structure, constancy, meaningfulness, and selectivity.

Objectivity is an act of objectification, i.e. attributing information received from the outside world to this world. Objectivity plays an important role in the formation of perceptual processes. We usually define objects not by their appearance, but by how we use them in practice or by their basic properties.

Integrity - perception, as you know, is a holistic image of an object that is formed on the basis of generalizations of knowledge about the individual properties and qualities of the object.



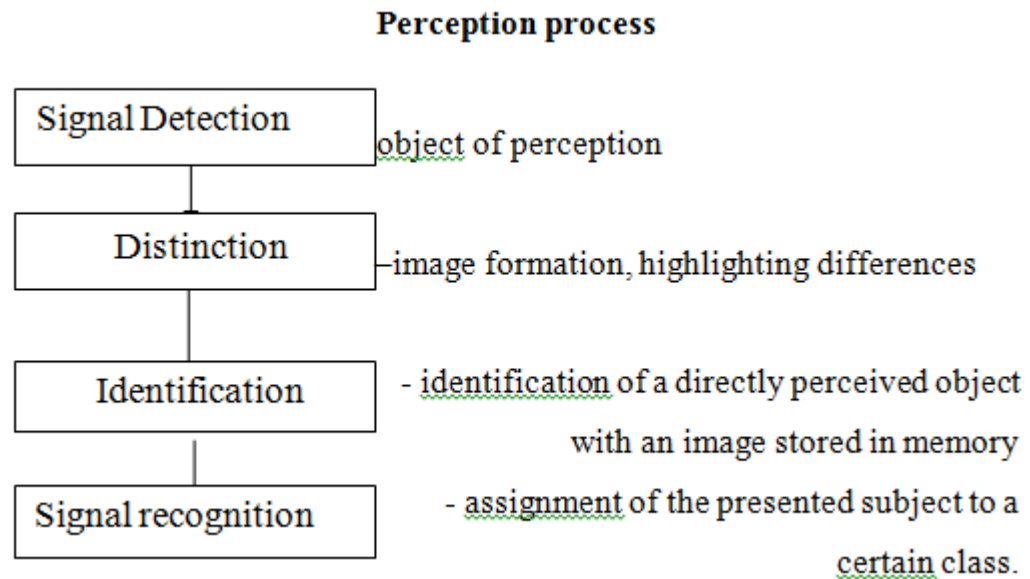
Scheme 5. Perceptual receptors

Structurality - we do not perceive objects as a sum of sensations, but on the basis of these sensations, we perceive the structure of an object, phenomena in the relationship of its elements, which is formed overtime. We perceive a generalized structure that is actually abstracted from these sensations.

Constancy - the relative constancy of some perceived prop-

erties of objects when the conditions of perception change (for example, white paper is perceived as white during the day and in the evening, a pencil is at a distance 20 sm, 1m and is 5m perceived as the same size, etc.).

Perception is an active process; it consists of certain actions . It can be shown in scheme 6:



The quality of perception is speed, completeness and accuracy.

Meaningfulness is conscious perception, i.e., mentally naming an object, attributing it to a certain group or class, and generalizing in a word.

Selectivity is manifested in the preferential selection of some objects in comparison with others and the focus of attention on these objects - the selection of the "background" and the object.

Let us especially note the phenomenon of apperception (introduced by the German psychologist G. Leibniz). This is the conditionality of the content and orientation of perception by knowledge, experience, established interests and views, and the relationship of a person to the environment, i.e. the introduction of human experience into the content of the psyche (adding to perception). For example, showing misspelled words in a tachis-

toscope - "pedagogical university" is read as correct - "pedagogical university".

Speed is the time from the beginning of the action of the perceived object to its consciousness (I see, I hear, this is so-and-so). It is equal to from thousandths of a second to whole seconds.

Completeness - there can be complete and incomplete (in terms of content, quantity and variety of features of objects) perceptions.

Accuracy is the correspondence of perceived images to perceived objects.

Qualities of perception are determined by external causes (objective) - the quality of the things themselves (colorfulness, clarity), the environment in which perception takes place (lighting, silence, distance); organic factors - the state of the sense organs and the nervous system; subjective factors - existing ideas, knowledge, feelings, interests, the degree of development of thinking.

Individual features of perception is analytical type of perception (pays attention to elements, parts of phenomena) - describing type; synthetic type (draws attention to the integrity of perception) - explanatory type; analytics-synthetic (pays attention to the parts and the whole at the same time), a combination of the first two types. We can talk about objective and subjective types of perception.

Objective type - accurate, detailed, without the influence of interests, thoughts or perceptions of phenomena.

Subjective - joins images of imagination and his own assumptions.

There is also an emotional type (brightly expresses his feelings caused by perception).

§ MEMORY

What a person feels and perceives does not disappear without a trace, but is remembered to one degree or another, i.e., fixed, stored, or, when required, reproduced.

Mental activity, expressed in the consolidation, preservation, and subsequent reproduction of what has already been in human experience, is called memory.

Scientific psychology actually began with the precise experimental study of memory in the 1980s. In 1885, the German psychologist Ebbinghaus published a book on - memory processes. In the 1930s, Russian psychologists L.S. Vygotsky, A.N. Leontiev, P.I. Zinchenko and A.A. Smirnov studied various aspects of memory processes.

Subsequently, with the advent of problems of operational and long-term memory, high-speed electronic computers, experimental studies of memory began. In modern studies of memory, the central problem is the problem of its mechanisms. We can talk about three directions, three levels of studying the mechanisms and patterns of memory:

1. Psychological
2. Neurophysiological
3. Biochemical

1. Psychological theories of memory - consider the role of subject in the formation of memory processes, depending on the subject's activity.

The first of these is association theory. It proceeds from the position that if certain psychological formations arose in consciousness simultaneously or immediately after each other, then an associative connection is formed between them and the reappearance of any of the elements of this connection necessarily causes the representation of all other elements.

The second theory was gestalt theory. memory (Ge stalt - image). As the basis for the formation of connections, this theory puts the principles of synthesis of elements, integrity and structure (but this theory considers the principle of integrity as origi-

nally given and the laws of the gestalt operate outside and in addition to the activity of the subject itself). Memory is considered by this theory to be an integral phenomenon that acts as an integral structure.

Behaviorism - bases human memory, pointing to the role of reinforcements in remembering.

Freudianism links memory with the role of emotions, motives and human needs.

The semantic theory of memory (Binet, Buhler) connects memory with the comprehension of the memorized material.

The theory is gaining recognition in modern psychology, which considers the activity of the individual as a factor determining the formation of memory processes as a basic concept.

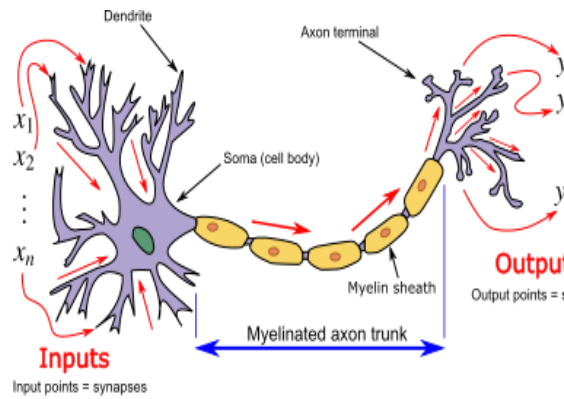
Theory activity (A.N. Leontiev, P.I. Zinchenko and A.A. Smirnov) states that the formation of connections between different representations is determined not by what the memorized material itself is, but, first of all, by what the subject does with it (the material acts as the goal of the action). The purpose and means of memorization in the structure of memory are the organization of mnemonic activity.

Physiological theories of memory mechanisms - the doctrine of the formation of conditional temporary connections, their preservation and revival

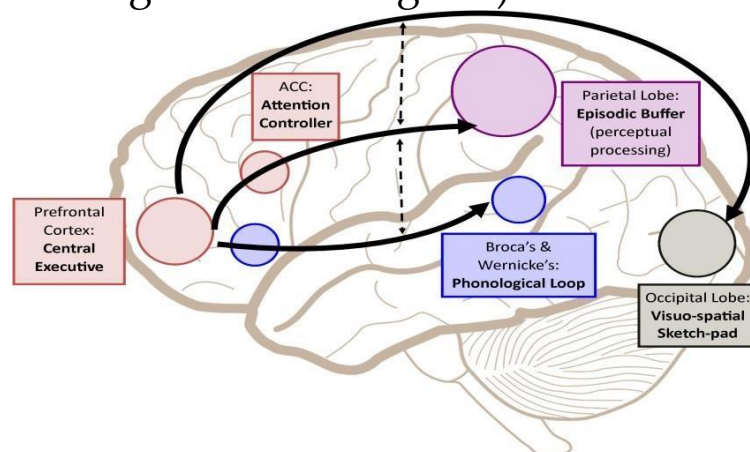
- are physiological theories of memory mechanisms. Due to the plasticity of the nervous system, any nervous process caused by external stimuli does not pass without a trace for the nervous system, but leaves in it, as it were, "traces", that facilitate the course of the corresponding nervous processes when they are repeated, as well as their reappearance in the absence of the irritation that caused them.

The physical materialization of the "trace" is expressed in electrical and mechanical changes in synapses (points of contact between nerve cells), which facilitate the secondary passage of the impulse along the "familiar" path.

The formation of temporary neural connections, the preservation of their "traces", and their subsequent actualization are considered by this theory as the mechanisms of memory processes. Modern neurophysiological studies are characterized by deep penetration into the mechanisms of fixation and preservation of traces at the neuronal and molecular levels. It has been established that the axons of some



nerve cells come into contact with the dendrites of other cells or return to the body of their cell. Due to this, it becomes possible to circulate reverberant (lat. Reverberate - reflect) circles of excitation of varying complexity. If the trace has been formed, but not yet consolidated, then this is the basis of short-term memory. If the trace has been strengthened, it forms the basis of long-term memory (the process of consolidation with repeated passage of nerve impulses through the same signals).



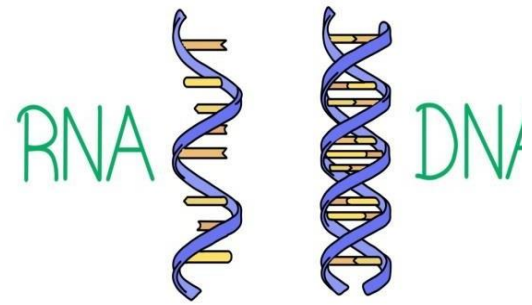
A hypothesis has also been put forward about the two-stage nature of

memorization processes :

1) After exposure to a stimulus, a short-term electromechanical reaction occurs, causing reversible physiological changes (the mechanism of short-term memory).

2) Arises on the basis of the first actual biochemical reaction associated with the formation of new proteins (simple proteins) - the mechanism of long-term memory.

Biochemical theories consider the specific changes that occur in nerve cells under the influence of external stimuli, which underlie the mechanisms of memory processes, and the role of DNA and RNA in memory processes.



Deoxyribonucleic acid (DNA) is considered a carrier of genetic, hereditary memory, a chemical basis for the transmission of all genetic information.

Ribonucleic (RNA) - as the basis of ontogenetic individual memory.

Cybernetic theory - informational, considers memory as receiving information, encoding it and storing and decoding information.

Memory processes include memorization, preservation, reproduction and forgetting.

Memorization, or imprinting in the form of representations of perceived objects and phenomena. Representation is the reproduction of images of past perceptions.

What is remembered is the material of memory, what is reproduced is the content of memory.

Memorization can be mechanical and semantic, involuntary and arbitrary.

Mechanic memorization is based on fixing external connections (its condition is simple repetition).

Semantic is based on the consolidation of internal logical connections (condition - understanding). Here the main role is played by thinking (understand, comprehend).

The golden rule of pedagogy (Jan Amos Comenius) says: "Nothing can be forced to memorize, except what is well understood".

Involuntary memorization - occurs without a pre-set goal, choice of material or intention.

Arbitrary - with a purpose, with intention, choice of material, and the use of special techniques.

What are the conditions for the speed, completeness, accuracy and strength of memory? First, these are the features of the manifestation of other mental processes during memorization; secondly, special techniques for memorization; thirdly, the attitude of a person to the memorized material.

1. The significance of other mental processes in memorization - how the material is perceived (the more sense organs are involved in the perception of the memorized material, the more productive it is). The student has as many senses as possible - eye, ear, voice, sense of muscular movements, and even, if possible, smell and taste should take part in the act of remembering); as it is understood, the memorized material is comprehended (the semantic text was remembered 22 times more than the meaningless ones in the experiments of Rybnikov N.A.); presence of attention; emotional experiences (material bearing an emotional character is remembered better), volitional efforts (diligence, diligence).

2. Special tricks. This is repetition. It can be passive (repeated perception of the same material) or active (repetition of playback). Experiments by V.P. Ivanova about the role of reproduction in memorization showed that 4 times a simple perception of the material gives a memorization productivity of 52.5%, and two perceptions and two reproductions - 75%, and a day later, in the first case 27.5% remained in memory, in the second 72, 5% of the memorized material.

Repetition can be continuous and distributed over time. The effectiveness of repetitions with breaks was established in the study of M.N. Sherdakov .

When memorizing, the way the material is distributed also matters. Small material must be memorized as a whole, large material must be broken into parts and memorized one part after another (semantic parts). The best way is a combined way (to get acquainted with the material as a whole, comprehend, un-

derstand, and then memorize in parts).

Various auxiliary techniques are of great importance (recording after the teacher, writing out from the book, compiling notes, diagrams, etc.). Special mnemonic techniques are used (Mnemosyne is the goddess of memory in Greece).

For example, chromatic colors - "every hunter wants to know where the pheasants are sitting."

3. Attitude towards the material to be memorized - these are attitudes (personal and even more so the social significance of the material being memorized), the attitude to remember this material for a long time (and not just for the upcoming exam).

The preservation of memorized material is a process of memory, as a result of which there is a movement in the mind of the previously perceived. Memory retains everything that was perceived by a person, but a certain part of the material is forgotten.

Playback. This is the actualization of the previously fixed memory content by extracting it from long-term memory and transferring it to operational memory.

Reproduction can be in the form of recognition and recall, both voluntary and involuntary.

Recognition is a reproduction that occurs when an object is re-perceived (we call incomplete recognition a sense of familiarity).

Recall is reproduction without re-perception. It can be non-derivative (mainly by association) and arbitrary (it is caused by a reproductive task that a person sets for him - to remember something).

Reproduction associated with overcoming difficulties is called recall.

The amount of material directly reproduced after one reading or listening determines the amount of memory.

Forgetting. Forgetting is understood as difficulty in reproduction, the inability to reproduce what is necessary at the moment. This is a memory process associated with the loss of traces

of previous influences and the possibility of their reproduction.

Types of memory. According to the nature of mental activity, memory is divided into non-arbitrary and arbitrary.

By the nature of the purpose of the activity there are motor, emotional, figurative and verbal-logical memories.

According to the duration of consolidation and preservation of the material there are short - term , long-term and operational memories. Involuntary memory is when the memorization and reproduction of material occur without the special purpose of remembering something.

Arbitrary memory: we set a goal, select material for memorization and recall it using special techniques (for example, preparing for a final test after completing a training course).

Motor memory is the memorization, preservation and reproduction of various movements and their systems. Physical dexterity, skill in work, sports movements. "Golden hands" is a sign of good motor memory.

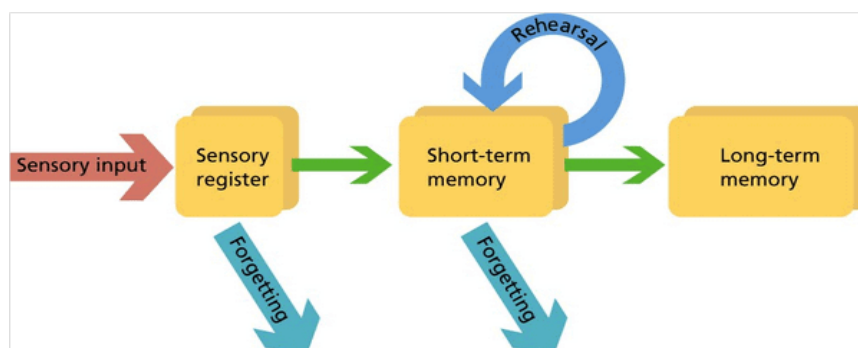
Emotional memory is a memory for feelings (a feeling of uncertainty, embarrassment and even fear that you experienced when you made your first speech with any report surfaced).

Figurative memory is a memory for representations, for pictures of nature and life. Sometimes there are people who have the so-called eidetic memory (Greek. eidos - view, image) - the image of an object in the representation of people with such a memory is bright, as in the perception of this object.

Verbal-logical memory - the content of which is our thoughts expressed in words and concepts (an important type of memory for pedagogical activity).

Short-term memory is short-term storage after a single, very short- term perception and immediate recall. Distinguish the so-called iconic memory, designed for very short time (0.1 - 0.5 seconds) preservation in the human head of traces of perceived material. Instant memory, as a rule, operates only during the process of perception itself the content of information in short-term memory can be transferred to long-term memory.

Long-term memory is designed for long-term storage and repeated reproduction of a variety of information by a person. It is achieved after repeated repetition and reproduction.



RAM is a type of memory designed to store information for a certain time, necessary for some action or operation (for example, in the mind to calculate 25×15 - its course is $25 \times 10 = 250$ (this must be remembered) and $25 \times 5 = 125$, and then add 250 and 125: $250 + 125 = 375$).

There is also a genetic memory - due to the genotype, which is transmitted from generation to generation.

According to the speed of memorization and forgetting, the following are the most characteristic individual features (scheme 7)

memorization	Forgetting	Memory name
rapid rapid slow slow	rapid slow slow rapid	grasping memory strong memory " long learning " memory "weak" memory

Scheme 7. Individual features of memory.

Memory plays a huge role in human life. Thanks to the presence of memory, a person acquires skills, knowledge, his mental outlook expands.

5 § IMAGINATION

People not only contemplate and cognize, but also change and transform the world. In order to transform reality in practice, one must be able to transform it mentally as well.

Imagination is an activity of consciousness, expressed in the creation, on the basis of existing representations, of images of objects that a person did not perceive before, that were not in his experience.



The functions of the imagination are the transformation of the results of past experience.

A person has ideas about such objects that he does not perceive (the idea of the North Pole, about the distant past, about the future of his country, etc.). These ideas are created by the imagination on the basis of ideas about perceived objects, on the basis of experience and knowledge. From "nothing", the imagination cannot create.

These representations, in contrast to memory representations, are called imagination representations.

The neuro-physiological basis of imagination should be considered as the revival in the human brain of previously formed connections and the transformation of these temporary connections into new combinations.

The specific activity of the imagination is a special kind of analysis and synthesis of memory representations. The mechanisms of imagination are agglutinations, accentuation, schematization and typification.

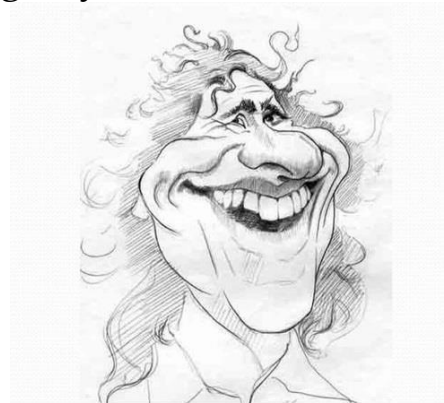
Agglutination is the combination and merging of individual parts of several objects into one image, the connection ("gluing") of ideas about the elements of various objects into one image for example: a mermaid is a woman's head and torso + a fish tail + green algae - hair.



Humpbacked horse: a horse + one-humped camel + donkey; sphinx - body of a lion + head and chest of a woman + wings of a bird; snow maiden - a living girl + snow woman, etc. The characteristic features of the complex activity of the imagination come out clearly when writers create literary heroes. For example, L.N. Tolstoy, speaking about the image of Natasha Rostova ("War and Peace"), reports: "He took some features from his wife, Sofya Alekseevna, others from her sister, Tatyana, "reworked" them and thus the image of Natasha turned out".

When reworking memory representations, creating new images, imagination can be expressed in an increase or decrease in the represented objects, a change in the number of parts of an object or their displacement, emphasizing any features.

Emphasis - the creation of new images by emphasizing certain features (reducing or increasing, or changing the proportions of individual sides or repeating them many times). For example, heroes in epics; giants and midgets in Swift's Gulliver's Travels friendly caricatures, etc.



Schematization - a description of any images in general terms.

Typification is the selection of significant repetitive, homogeneous facts, aspects of objects and their embodiment in a specific image. M.Y. Lermontov wrote - "Pechorin is a portrait of a person, made up of the vices of our entire generation in their full development."

Types of imagination

There are recreate and create, involuntary and arbitrary (reproductive and productive, passive and active) imagination.

Dreams, daydreams, hallucinations are types of passive imagination.

Dreams are images that involuntarily arise during sleep sometimes forgotten, sometimes persistent, especially if the

dreams are situational, i.e. associated in content with former traumas of the psyche or with a protracted struggle of motives.

Daydreams are a type of imagination that is close to dreams, but

differs from them in the awareness of unreality and unreliability.

Synonymous with a pipe dream. A daydream is a person's plans for the future, presented in his imagination and realizing the most important needs and interests for him.

Active imagination is characterized by the fact that, using it, a person of his own free will, by an effort of will, causes himself appropriate images: the creation of a brand of a new car, a project for the construction of a hydroelectric power station, and other examples of active imagination.

In the reproductive (recreating) imagination, the task is to reproduce reality as it is, although there is an element of fantasy here. Such imagination is more like perception or memory than creativity. It is expressed in the creation of ideas about such objects that, although they exist or existed in reality, but have not yet been in our experience, we did not perceive, for example, the military campaigns of Amir Temur, the description of nature in a work of art, etc.

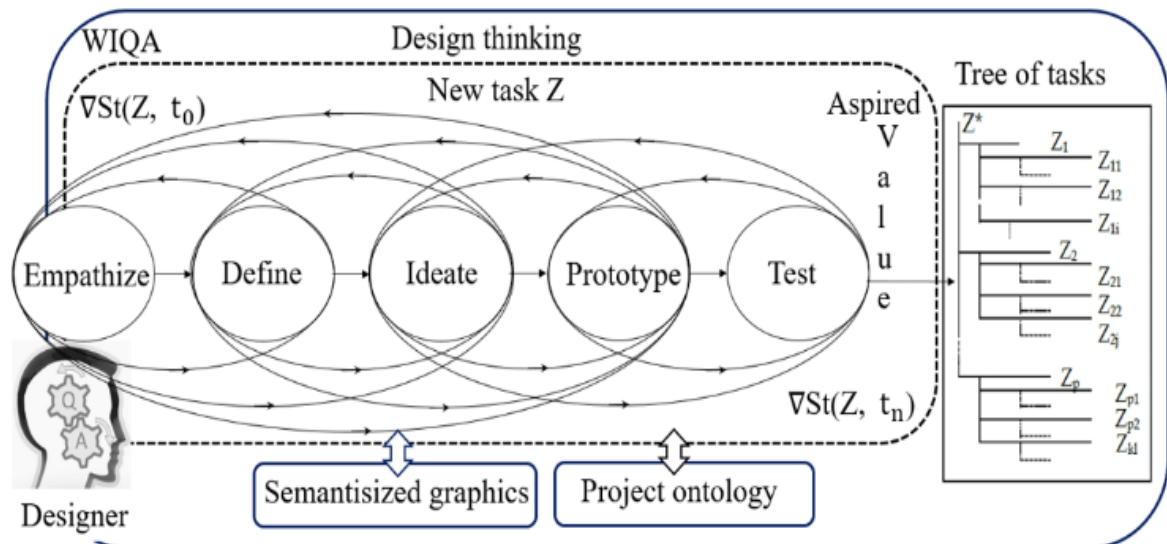
Productive (creative) imagination - expressed in the creation of images of such objects that were not in our experience and which are not in reality. It is aimed at creating something new, original. For example, a writer, inventor, scientist create something new (a book, a car, a discovery, etc.).

Creative imagination is manifested in all kinds of art, in innovation, in agriculture, in inventions, in the field of science and technology, and so on.

§ *THINKING*

Thinking is the highest form of human mental activity, the most generalized and indirect form of reflection of the real world, establishing significant connections and relationships be-

tween objects, the process of cognition associated with the discovery of subjectively new knowledge, with the solution of problems with the creative transformation of reality.



A specific feature of thinking is its inseparable connection with language. The reality of thought is manifested in language. Thinking arose and develops in human practice on the basis of sensations, perceptions and ideas.

Due to thinking, the reflection of reality in sensations and perceptions becomes more correct, more accurate. In thinking, reality is reflected deeper and more fully than in perceptions and ideas. Thinking is a generalized reflection of reality.

Through thinking, we reveal the most significant connections and relationships between objects (we give explanations why this event happened, that is, we establish a causal relationship) to know what we directly observe. Moreover, it gives us the opportunity to foresee the course of events and the results of our actions.

Mental operations

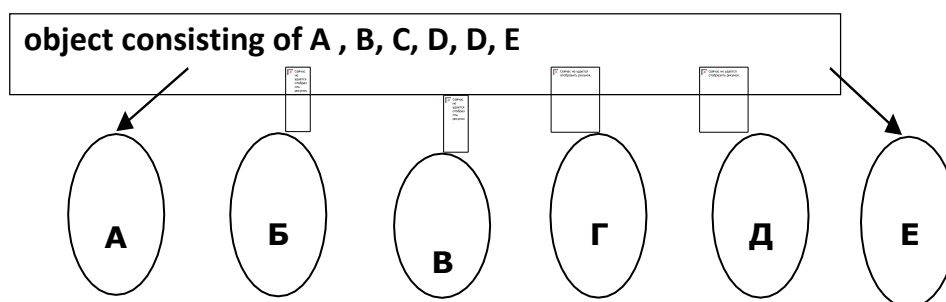
The process of thinking takes place in the form of special mental operations. In the process of these operations, new judgments are created in us, concepts about things and phenomena of the real world are formed. Let us consider these types of

mental operations.

1) Comparison. This is a mental operation, expressed in the establishment of similarities or differences, equality and inequality, identity or opposition between individual objects.

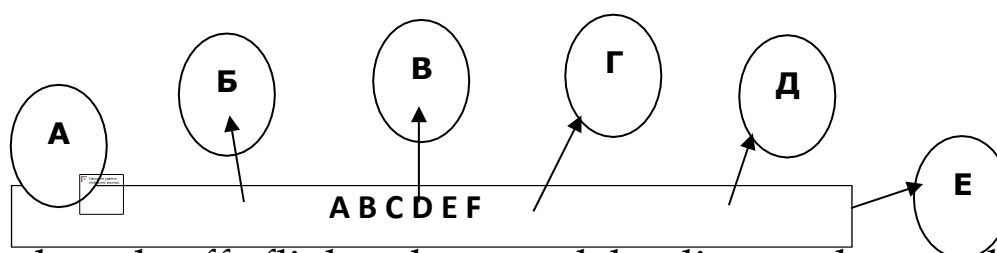
2) Analysis - the mental division of objects into component parts, - when we single out their individual properties, elements.

The analysis scheme can be represented as follows:



So, thinking about the complex figure of a jump, we mentally single out the main elements in it - take off, push, flight phase, landing.

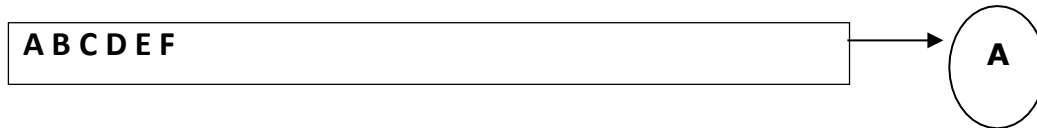
3) Synthesis is a mental operation opposite to analysis, it is a mental reunion of a complex object from those of its elements that were known to us in the process of analysis. synthesis scheme as follows:



Example: takeoff, flight phase and landing make up the complex - structure of a jump. Analysis and synthesis proceed in unity.

4) Distraction (abstraction) is a mental operation, which consists in the mental separation of any feature (properties, actions, states, relationships) from objects reflected in thinking.

An example is a sign of the blackness of the board, to think about movement in general.

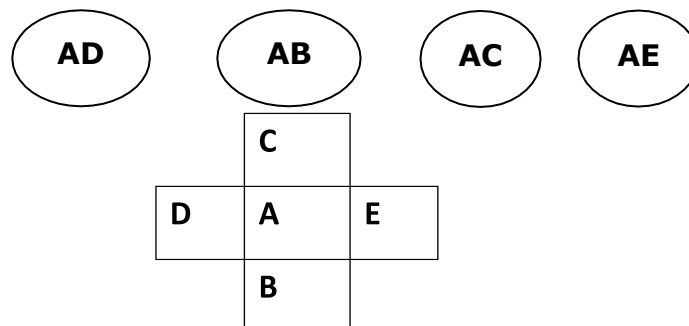


The distraction scheme can be represented as follows:

For example, glass has a number of qualities - transparent, hard, brittle, etc. We select one of them and then an abstract concept arises, for - example, "transparency".

5) Generalization - a mental combination of similar, essential - features of objects (class of objects) reflected by thinking in one concept, i.e. mental association of properties and homogeneous objects.

Example: apples, pears, plums, grapes are fruits; trees, herbs, flowers - plants. The generalization schema might look like this:



6) However abstraction and generalization also imply the opposite operation, concretization of, i.e., the transition from abstraction and generalization back to the concrete. For example, the generalized concept "domestic animal" is concretized in the concepts "horse", "cat", "dog", etc. Lack of concretization leads to the formalism of students' knowledge.

7) Classification - the mental summing up of individual objects and phenomena on the basis of their common properties under a more general concept. The attribute by which the classification is made is the basis of the classification.

For example, spruce, pine is coniferous trees; dog, cat, cow,

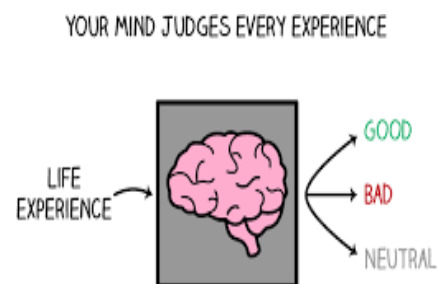
horse are domestic animals.

8) Systematization - the mental arrangement of the classes of objects established by us in a certain order, in accordance with their general laws. Signs of systematization - chronological, spatial and logical.

LOGICAL FORMS OF THINKING

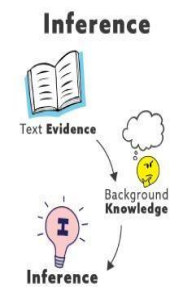
In the process of thinking, in separate mental operations, we have thoughts that are formed in the form of judgments.

A judgment is one complete thought. A judgment is a thought that affirms or denies something about objects and their attributes. For example, "Tashkent is the capital of Uzbekistan", "Stone does not float in water".



The subject of the judgment is the subject "S", the predicate of the judgment is what is said about the subject "P". So "S" is "P". Types of judgments - single (about single objects), private (about a part of objects and phenomena), general (about the whole subject or class of subjects). They can be affirmative, negative, true and false, conditional (belonging to an attribute of an object is affirmed or denied under certain conditions), separating (an object is assigned several attributes, of which only one belongs, for example, "bodies are in a solid or liquid, or gaseous state"), categorical judgments of possibility (for example, "Perhaps there is life on other planets"), reality, necessity (the connection between an object and properties is natural - an example of "Water when boils at 100 degrees"), etc. There are judgments obtained indirectly, by inference.

Inference is a logical form of thinking, with the help of which a new judgment (conclusion) is derived from two or more known judgments (premises).



Types of inferences - inductive, deductive and by analogy.

1) Inductive (induction), when a general judgment is obtained from several individual judgments. "Wood expands when heated", "Iron expands when heated", "Water expands when heated", "Air expands when heated". Conclusion: "All bodies expand when heated."

2) Deductive (deduction) - the conclusion is obtained from a general proposition to a single proposition. "All metals are good conductors of electricity", "Aluminum is metal ". Conclusion: "Consequently, aluminum is a good conductor of electricity."

3) Analogy - the conclusion is drawn from individual or private judgments, too, to a single, private judgment. "The sun, like all celestial bodies, consists of the same elements as the earth", "There is helium in the sun." Conclusion: "Therefore, there is probably helium on earth." This is how the element helium was discovered on earth.

Assumptions that are used in science to explain some phenomena, but whose reliability has not yet been proven empirically, are called a hypothesis. A hypothesis that not only does not contradict the observed facts, but is also confirmed in practice, becomes a theory.

Concept

In the process of thinking, concepts are created that reflect the objects of reality in their most essential connections and relationships. To have a concept about any subject means to have a number of judgments about the subject. The totality of judgments in which the concept is revealed constitutes the content of

the concept. A concept is the highest product of the brain, it is a generalized mental image.

There are subject (concrete) and abstract (abstract) concepts. The number of objects to which the concept refers is the scope of the concept. In terms of volume, there are single and general concepts.

Concepts can be everyday (pre-scientific) and scientific. Extremely broad (in terms of volume) concepts that are not subject to generalization are called categories (for example, time, movement, space, quantity, quality, etc.).

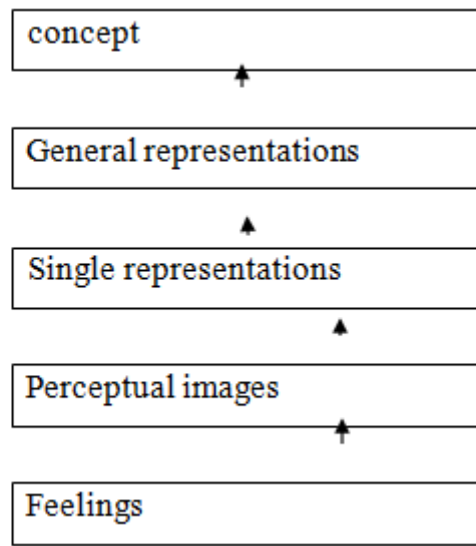
The disclosure of concepts in a short verbal form is called a definition (a generic and specific attribute is indicated). For example, a noun is a part of speech (a common generic feature) that expresses an object and answers the question who? what? (species, special feature).

Concepts develop historically and in the awareness of an individual person (in the process of individual development). Historical development - for example, the concept of "atom" (an indivisible part of the world). Now every schoolchild knows that the atom consists of a number of elementary particles. Age development is a change in the content of the concept in people of different ages (for example, the concept of revolution among primary schoolchildren, senior classes and students, etc.). Concepts are expressed in words or a group of words. They are formed on the basis of existing images of sensation, perception and ideas. This can be represented by the following scheme:

In contrast to the formation of concepts, their assimilation by a person occurs as the mastery of already accumulated ready-made experience of people.

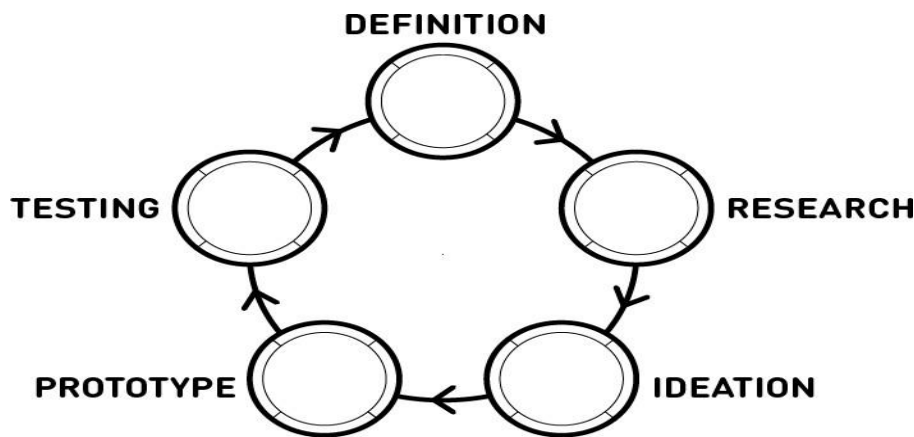
Understanding is the disclosure of the essential in objects and phenomena it is a complex thought process consisting in the disclosure of the true connections and relationships that exist between the phenomena of the objective world. Understanding is carried out by pointing to an object, by describing it, or by judging the object. It is expressed in a state of confidence, in the accu-

racy of perception or interpretation of any event, fact.



Scheme 8. Formation of concepts

Thinking as a process. The thought process is a complex phenomenon. Where does thinking begin? It begins with the appearance of a problem situation.



Scheme 9. Thinking process

Thinking is necessary in situations in which new goals arise, and the old means and methods are not enough to achieve them. Such situations are called problematic.

A problem situation is a situation in which a mental task arises associated with intellectual activity, when it becomes unclear to a person when something is wrong here, when old

methods do not make it possible to solve this problem. Based on the formulation of a mental task, a person puts forward a hypothesis - an assumption, a project for solving the problem. At this stage, a person formulates a scheme of his thinking - a system of concepts or logic of reasoning that he habitually applies when he encounters an unfamiliar object or a new task. A problematic situation means that in the course of activity a person came across something incomprehensible, unknown, disturbing.

Methods for solving problems formulated on the basis of the problem situation that has arisen this is a method of "trial and error" and "developing a strategy for solving the problem." With the "trial and error" method, a person goes through all the methods known to him and can accidentally solve the problem. When developing a strategy for solving a problem, a person uses certain grounds (arguments, axioms, standards, etc.) to reasonably solve the problem. Finding a solution to a problem is sometimes described as a sudden, unexpected instantaneous discovery - "insight" ("insight").

In the course of solving a problem, there is always at least a minimal, very insignificant, and at first very approximate mental anticipation of the unknown.

In the course of solving a problem, there is always at least a minimal, very insignificant, and at first very approximate mental anticipation of the unknown.

This anticipation bridges the gap between the known and the unknown.

Types of thinking

Human thinking is divided into the following types:

In terms of complexity - simple (there is an answer immediately) and complex (search for an answer, solving a problem, and then only an answer).

By activity - arbitrary (thinking is mostly arbitrary), when a question is deliberately posed. The search for an answer takes place with tension, with an effort of will and involuntary (as if elusive) - the discovery of the law of Archimedes, the table of el-

ements of Mendeleev.

According to the degree of generalization - concrete, which has three subspecies - object - effective (thinking based on objects and actions with them in early childhood), object-visual (based on objects) and visual- figurative, characterized by reliance on representations and images items.

Abstract thinking based on abstract concepts. For example, the solution of the equation " $X + 5 = 10$ ".

Thinking can be theoretical , when a person solves a problem and looks for answers to the questions: "What is this?", "Why is this phenomenon happening?" (This is explanatory thinking)

Practical thinking gives an answer to the questions: "How to change this or that phenomenon?", "What needs to be done in order to achieve such and such a goal?"

Finally, it should be noted that thinking can be reproductive and creative.

Reproductive thinking is standard thinking, repetitive ways and techniques for solving problems learned through repeated exercises. Creative

- associated with the creation or discovery of something new. The science that studies productive, creative thinking is called heuristics.

The National Program for the Training of Personnel (1997) puts before education the formation of independent thinking of students.

President of the Republic of Uzbekistan I.A. Karimov writes: "We all understand well that the main task of a teacher is to develop the skills of independent thinking in students, but, unfortunately, this does not always happen in practice. In a democratic society, children, in general, every person is brought up to be free - thinking. If children do not learn to think freely, then inevitably, the learning effect will be lower. Knowledge is essential, of course. But independent thinking is a huge wealth."⁷

The task of high school teachers is to teach their pupils to

think - independently. What are the individual differences in people's thinking? (qualities of the mind) That need to be developed in the younger generation?

The ability to think is the human mind.

Review questions:

1. What are the features of sensation as a process of reflecting the properties of objects and phenomena?
2. Give a classification of sensations.
3. The concept of perception.
4. Tell us about the features of perception.
5. What do perceptual actions mean?
6. Give examples of illusions.
7. Basic memory processes
8. Give a classification of the types of imagination.
9. What are the main mechanisms of the imagination process?
10. Differences of thinking from other sensory cognitive processes .

PSYCHOLOGY OF COMMUNICATION AND INTERPERSONAL RELATIONS. GROUP PSYCHOLOGY.

COMMUNICATION

Communication is the interaction of two or more people, consisting in the exchange between them of information of a cognitive and affective- evaluative nature.

Three interrelated aspects in the structure of communication: communicative, interactive and perceptual.

The communicative side of communication consists in the exchange of information between communicating individuals.

The interactive side of communication consists in the organization of interaction between communicating individuals, i.e. in the exchange of not only knowledge, ideas, but also actions.

perceptual side of communication means the process of perception of each other by communication partners and the establishment of mutual understanding on this basis.

1§ COMMUNICATION AS AN EXCHANGE OF INFORMATION

(communicative side of connection)

The transmission of any information is possible only through signs, more precisely sign systems. There are several sign systems that are used in the communicative process - *verbal* communication (speech is used as a sign system) and *non-verbal* (various non-verbal - non-speech sign systems are used).

Verbal communication, as already mentioned, uses *human speech as a sign system*.

Speech is a system of sound signals, written signs and symbols used by a person to represent, process, store and transmit information. It is the process of communication between people through language. *Language* is a system of verbal signs mediating mental activity, a means of communication.

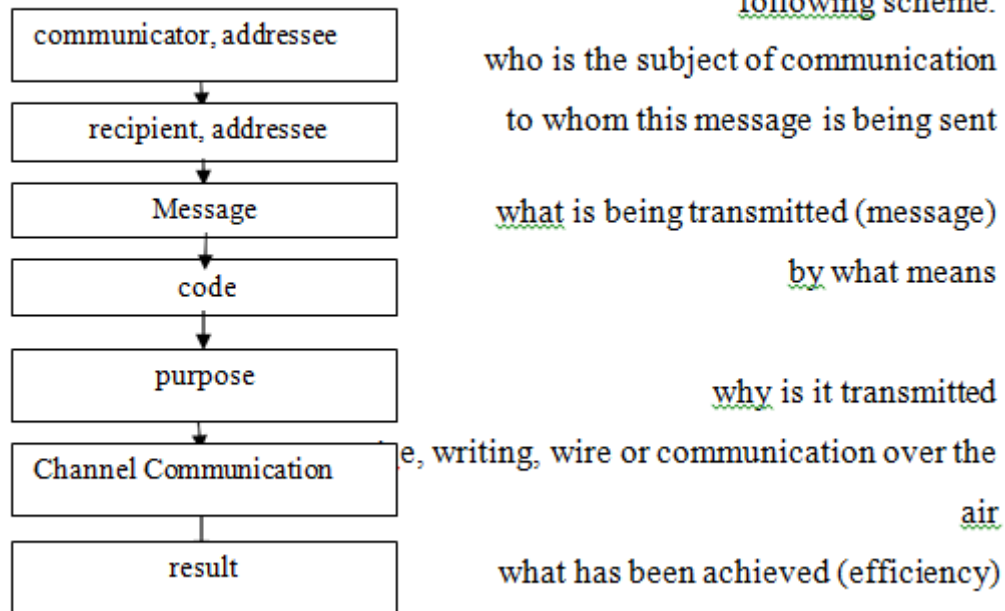
Communication as a communicative act can be represented as the following scheme: who is the subject of communication to

whom this message is being sent what is being transmitted (message)

by what means why is it transmitted e, writing, wire or communication over the air what has been achieved (efficiency)

Communication as a communicative act can be represented as the

following scheme:



Scheme 1. Communicative act

Speech is the most universal means of communication, since when information is transmitted through speech, the meaning of the message is least of all lost.

There are three functions of speech: significative (designation, generalization, communication - thought transfer); transmission of feelings and attitudes and volitional (impact on people).

It is known that speech can be of different types - external, internal, oral, written, monologue, dialogic, active, passive, etc.

A high degree of common understanding of the situation by all participants in the communicative process, which was discussed above, is important.

Properties of speech are important here: content, comprehensibility, expressiveness, inactivity.

An outstanding French writer Antoine de Saint -Exupéry (1900-1944) wrote: "Communication is a rare human luxury that

brings the highest pleasure."

Saadi (1210–1292) vividly expressed the meaning of words and speech: "Whether you are smart or stupid, whether you are great or small, we do not know until you have said a word."

Folk wisdom says: "The mind of a person is manifested in the clarity of his speech."

Non-verbal communication - the first to be called is the optical-kinetic system of signs, which includes gestures, facial expressions, pantomime.

Gestures are the movements of a person's hands, expressing his internal state and pointing to some object in the outside world.

Mimicry is a set of movements of parts of a person's face, expressing his state or attitude to what he perceives, imagines, ponders, remembers, etc.

Pantomime is a system of expressive movements performed with the help of the body.

Studies show that in the daily act of human communication, 7% are words; sounds and intonations - 38%, and non-verbal interaction - 55%.

"We speak with a voice, we talk with our whole body," emphasized Publicius. Let us consider some other systems of signs of non-verbal communication.

Paralinguistic and extralinguistic sign systems - this is a vocalization system, i.e. voice quality, its range, tonality (paralinguistic system) and the inclusion of pauses in speech, coughing, crying, laughter, speech tempo (extralinguistic system). The placement of partners in the process of communication also carries a semantic load.

Classroom placements should be recognized as extremely unsuccessful when the speaker is turned to face the rest of those present, located at the back of the head to each other, and the presenter is nearby, depicting the "presidium". Such placement provokes the speaker and presenter into a monologue and makes it difficult to conduct a fruitful discussion.

Slightly better is an arrangement in which people sit at a table arranged in the shape of the letter "T".

The most acceptable arrangement is a circular arrangement ("Round Table"), which ensures eye contact of all participants in the discussion. If you need a visual representation of the subjects of discussion (graphs, diagrams, layouts, etc.), a "V" shaped or "U" shaped arrangement of the group is recommended.

The next specific sign system used in the communicative process is the "eye contact" that takes place in visual communication. For example, in the work of teachers, leaders, non-verbal means, especially "eye contact" are of great importance as an addition to verbal communication.

Various objects, for example, flowers, photos, drawings, etc., can serve as an interesting sign system used in the communicative process. It is possible to transfer certain information - to tell other people with flowers.

This phenomenon has its own history.

The language of flowers was born in the East. It was created by women. Deprived of society, often not daring to reveal their faces, they transferred all the shades of their mood and feelings to the flowers. The associations that once arose gradually turned into persistent symbols, thanks to which it was possible to carry on a conversation. So, the azalea meant sadness caused by loneliness, the number of hyacinth buds - the day of the meeting, the number of bells - the hour of the meeting.

In the XIV century, the language of flowers penetrates France, then England and spreads throughout Europe. Snapdragon symbolizes glory, cornflowers - trust, daisies - consent, lily of the valley and lilacs - renewal, lilies - purity, cloves - passion.

§ *COMMUNICATION AS INTERACTION*

(interactive side of communication)

This characteristic of communication, which is associated with the interaction of people, with the direct organization of their joint activities.

Joint activity and communication of people proceeds under conditions of social control, carried out on the basis of social norms - patterns of behavior accepted in society that regulate interactions and relationships between people.

Social control in the process of interaction is carried out in accordance with the repertoire of roles performed by communicating people.

Role - a normatively approved pattern of behavior expected by others from everyone who occupies a given social position (the role of a teacher or student, doctor or patient, adult or child, boss or subordinate, father or mother, son or daughter, etc.).

Types of interactions - cooperation and competition,

Cooperation (collaboration) is a form of organization of activity in which a significant number of people jointly participate in one and different, interconnected processes of activity.

Competition is a state of interaction between two or more entities (which may be individuals or groups) in which they are in competitive pursuit of the same goals.

Violation of interaction processes becomes the cause of interpersonal conflicts. Conflicts can be different depending on the source (arising from the collision of different views, values, motives), content (business and personal), and the effect (which they have on the life of the group). Conflicts can be both intragroup (interpersonal) and intergroup.

Development devoid of contradictions, as you know, is impossible, therefore it is important to assess the qualitative side of the conflict, to identify what is behind it: dissatisfaction with communication with people, the degree of discrepancy between personal and group norms, or disagreement about ways to achieve a common goal.

The moral stability of the existing personality, its active life position are also strengthened in a conflict situation, forcing a person to make a moral choice.

Overcoming (removing) the conflict is the way to self-improvement of relations. The character of a person should be distinguished not by conflict-freeness, but by readiness for conflict, sometimes the ability to meet him halfway. The educational value of such conflict situations and morally justified ways of resolving and removing them can hardly be overestimated.

§ COMMUNICATION AS PEOPLE'S PERCEPTION OF EACH OTHER

(perceptual side of communication)

Quite often, the perception of a person by a person is referred to as "social perception". However, when it comes to this side of communication, it is advisable to talk not about social perception in general, but about interpersonal perception, or perception of a person by a person.

Russian psychologist A.A. Bodalev frequently uses the expression "knowledge of another person" as a synonym for "perception of another person".

Since a person always enters society as a person, to the extent that he is perceived by another person - a partner in communication - just like a person.

As S.L. Rubinshtein, on the basis of the external side of behavior, we seem to "read" another person, decipher the meaning of his external data.⁸

Knowing the other, the cognizing individual himself is formed. L.S. Vygotsky pointed out that a person becomes for himself what he represents for others.⁹

However, at least two people are included in this process of cognition of a person by a person of another person, and each of them is an active subject. Consequently, comparing oneself with another is carried out, as it were, from two sides: each of the partners likens himself to another. This means that when build-

ing an interaction strategy, everyone has to take into account not only the needs, motives and attitudes of the other, but also how this other understands my needs, motives and attitudes.

The analysis of self-awareness through another includes identification and reflection.

Identification - means assimilation of oneself to another. Identification is understood as a way of understanding the self of another person through awareness and unconscious assimilation of its characteristics to the characteristics of the person himself.

Close relationship has been established between identification and another phenomenon close in content - the phenomenon of empathy.

Empathy - a special way of understanding another person. Only here we mean not a rational understanding of the problems of another person, but *the desire to emotionally respond to his problems* (awareness and understanding of the emotions of another person). It is sharing emotions with another person, empathy for another person.

It is one thing to understand a communication partner by taking his position, acting with her, another thing is to understand him, taking into account his point of view, even sympathizing with her, but acting in his own way. Both aspects are important.

From the point of view of the characteristics of communication, both cases require the solution of one more question: how will the one, "the other", i.e. communication partner to understand me. Our interaction depends on it.

This phenomenon is called *reflection*. In social psychology, reflection is understood as the awareness by the acting individual of how he is perceived by his communication partner. This is no longer just knowing how the other understands me, a kind of double process of mirror reflections of each other, a deep consistent mutual reflection, the content of which is the reproduction of the inner world of the interaction partner which plays a significant role, a special role in the process of perception of a

person by a person.

This role is especially significant in the formation of the first impression of a stranger.

The experiments of A.A. Bodalev, which revealed the role of the installation in this case.

In one experiment, two groups of students were shown a photograph of the same person. But beforehand, the first group was informed that the person in the presented photograph is a hardened criminal, and the second group was informed about the same person that he is a major scientist.

After that, each group was asked to write a verbal portrait of the photographed person.

In the first case, the corresponding characteristics were obtained: deep-set eyes "testified" to hidden malicious intent, a prominent chin - to the determination to "go to the end" in a crime, etc.

Accordingly, in the second group, the same deep-set eyes pointed about deep thoughts and the prominent chin - about willpower in overcoming difficulties on the path of knowledge, etc.

Psychology has also revealed features associated with the "effects" that arise when people perceive each other.

Three such "effects" are known, the "halo" effect, the "novelty and primacy" effect, and the phenomenon of stereotyping.

The "halo" effect lies in the fact that the information received about a person is "categorized" in a certain way, namely, it is superimposed on the image that has already been created in advance. This image, which previously existed, plays the role of a "halo" that prevents one from seeing the real features and manifestations of the object of perception.

The effect of "primacy and novelty" - both of them relate to the significance of a certain order of presenting information about a person to compare ideas about him. In the studies conducted, impressions about a stranger exactly corresponded to the order of presentation of information: the one presented earli-

er prevailed.

In situations of perception of a familiar person, the effect of “but the vanity” operates, which lies in the fact that the latter, i.e. the newer information is the most significant.

All these effects can be considered as the emergence of a special process that accompanies the perception of a person by a person - the phenomenon of stereotyping. A stereotype is a certain established image of a phenomenon or person, which is used as a well-known “abbreviation” when interacting with this phenomenon (for example, “all teachers are edifying”, “all accountants are pedants”).

Stereotyping can lead to prejudice (in real life, they can cause serious harm not only to people’s communication with each other, but also to their relationships). Ethnic stereotypes are especially widespread, when, on the basis of limited information about individual representatives of any ethnic groups, biased conclusions are drawn regarding the entire ethnic group (for example, views on the insufficient mental development of representatives of black races in America are still being developed in America, etc.).

Psychological methods of influence in the process of communication are infection, suggestion, persuasion, imitation.

Contagion is an unconscious, involuntary exposure of an individual to certain mental states. A special situation where the impact through infection is enhanced is the situation of panic.

Panic occurs in the mass of people as a certain emotional state, which is a consequence of either a lack of information about any frightening or incomprehensible news, or an excess of this information.

A well-known example is the emergence of mass panic in the United States on October 30, 1938, after a broadcast organized by the NBS radio company based on the book by H. Wells "The War of the Worlds". Masses of radio listeners of various age and educational strata (according to official data, about 1 million 200 thousand people) experienced a state close to mass psycho-

sis, believing in the invasion of Martians on Earth.

Suggestion is a special type of influence, namely: a targeted, unreasoned impact of one person on another or on a group (this form of influence is associated with an uncritical perception of information).

Persuasion is built on the fact that with the help of logical reasoning to achieve consent from the person receiving the information. With suggestion, it is not consent that is achieved, but simply the acceptance of information based on a ready conclusion; in the case of persuasion, the conclusion must be made by the receiver of the information independently.

Therefore, persuasion is predominantly an intellectual influence, and suggestion is predominantly an emotional-volitional influence.

Imitation refers to the mechanisms and ways of influencing people on each other in conditions predominantly outside of collective behavior, although its role in groups is also quite large.

The specificity of imitation lies in the fact that it is not a simple acceptance of external features and patterns of demonstrated behavior. Imitation plays an important role in childhood. It acts at certain stages as the main form of mastering reality. Various stages are characteristic here - from blind copying of adult behavior patterns to motivated imitation.

Imitation in adults takes place, as a rule, when there is no opportunity to apply any other way of mastering an unfamiliar action.

Communication levels. Three levels of communication are known : macro-, meso- and micro-levels.

- 1) Macro level (large) - communication with other people, observing the rules and norms.
- 2) Mesolevel (middle, intermediate) - contacts on a specific topic (for example, askiya (wit), humor on a specific topic).
- 3) Micro level (small) - elementary acts of communication, question- answer forms, a meaningful look, a handshake, etc.'

Types of communication:

- mesopersonal (man-man);
- personal-group (group-group [for example, a game of hockey]);
- mass communications (radio, television, press).

§ *GROUP PSYCHOLOGY*

The psychology and behavior of an individual as a person essentially depend on the social environment. The latter is a complex society in which people are united with each other in numerous, diverse, more or less stable compounds called *groups*.

Among these groups can be distinguished large and small. *Large ones* are represented by states, nations, nationalities, parties, classes, and other social communities distinguished by professional, economic, religious, cultural, educational, age, gender, and other various characteristics. Through these groups, the impact of the ideology of society on the psychology of their constituent people is indirectly carried out.

The direct conductor of the influence of society and large social groups on the individual is a *small group*. It is a small association of people (from 2-3 to 20-30 people) engaged in some common cause and in direct relationship with each other. The small group is the elementary cell of society. In it, a person spends most of his life. The well-known thesis about the dependence of the psychology and behavior of the individual on the social environment would be more correct to formulate as the idea of the dependence of the individual on the psychology and relations that exist in small groups. Examples of small groups that are most significant for a person are a family, a school class, a work team, associations of close friends, friends, etc.

A small group is characterized by the psychological and behavioral community of its members, which singles out and separates the group, making it a relatively autonomous socio-psychological entity. This community can be revealed by various

characteristics - from purely external (for example, the territorial community of people as neighbors) to quite deep internal (for example, members of the same family). The measure of psychological community determines the cohesion of the group, one of the main characteristics of the level of its socio-psychological development.

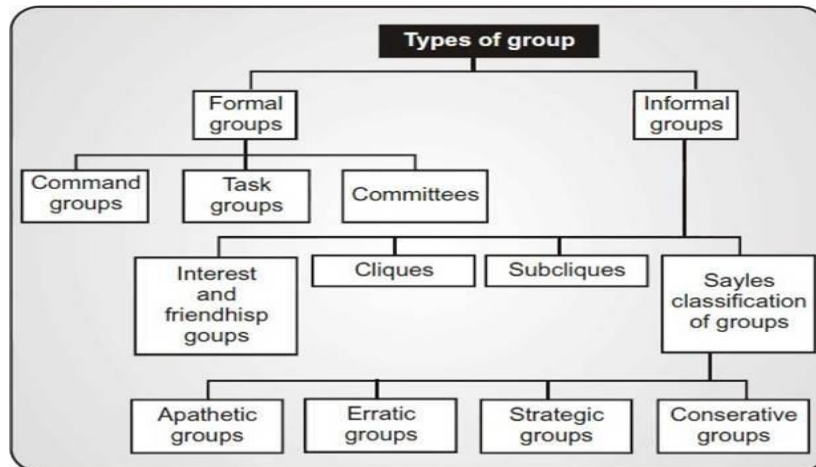
Small groups can be different in size, in the nature and structure of the relations that exist between their members, in individual composition, in the characteristics of values, norms and rules of relationships shared by the participants, in interpersonal relations, in the goals and content of the activity. The quantitative composition of a group in the language of science is called its size, the individual - composition. The structure of interpersonal communication, or the exchange of business and personal information, is called *communication channels*, the moral and emotional tone of interpersonal relationships is called the *psychological climate of the group*. The general rules of behavior that members of a group adhere to are called *group norms*. All of these characteristics are the main parameters by which small groups are distinguished, divided and studied in social psychology.

Consider the classification of small groups. *Conditional*, or *nominal*, are groups that unite people who are not part of any small group. Sometimes the selection of such groups is necessary for research purposes, in order to compare the results obtained in real groups with those that characterize a random association of people who have neither constant contact with each other, nor a common goal. In contrast to nominal groups, *real ones are celebrated*. They are really existing associations of people that fully meet the definition of a small group.

Groups that form on their own, regardless of the desire of the experimenter, are called *natural*. They arise and exist based on the needs of society or people included in these groups. Unlike them, *laboratory* groups are created by the experimenter in order to conduct some kind of scientific research, to test the hy-

pothesis put forward. They are just as effective as other groups, but they exist temporarily - only in the laboratory.

Conditional, or nominal, groups are associations of people artificially singled out by the researcher. In contrast to them, all other types of groups actually exist in society and are quite widely represented in it among people of different professions, ages, and social affiliations.



Natural groups are divided into *formal* and *informal* (another name is official and informal). The former are distinguished by the fact that they are created and exist only within the framework of officially recognized organizations, the latter appear and act, as it were, outside the framework of these organizations (compare, for example, a school class as an official small group and an informal youth association as an informal group). The goals pursued by official groups are set from the outside on the basis of the tasks facing the organization in which this group is included. The goals of informal groups usually arise and exist on the basis of the personal interests of their members, and may coincide or diverge from the goals of official organizations.

Small groups can be *referential* and *non-referential*. A reference group is any real or conditional (nominal) small group to which a person voluntarily classifies himself or which he would like to become a member. In the reference group, the individual finds role models for himself. Its goals and values, norms and forms of behavior, thoughts and feelings, judgments and opinions become significant models for him to follow and follow. A

non-reference group is considered to be such a small group, the psychology and behavior of which are alien to the individual or indifferent to him. In addition to these two types of groups, there may be anti - *referential* groups, the behavior and psychology of whose members a person does not accept at all, condemns and rejects.

All natural groups can be divided into *highly developed* and *underdeveloped*. Underdeveloped small groups are characterized by the fact that they do not have sufficient psychological community, established business and personal relationships, an established structure of interaction, a clear distribution of responsibilities, recognized leaders, and effective teamwork. The latter are socio-psychological communities that meet all the requirements listed above. Underdeveloped, by definition, are, for example, conditional and laboratory groups (the latter frequently only at the first stages of their functioning).

§ COLLECTIVE

Collectives stand out among highly developed small groups. The psychology of a developed team is characterized by the fact that the activity for which it was created and in which it is engaged in practice is undoubtedly of positive significance for many people, not only for members of this team. In a team, interpersonal relationships are based on mutual trust of people, openness, honesty, decency, mutual respect, etc.

In order to call a small group a collective, it must meet a number of very high requirements: to successfully cope with the tasks assigned to it (to be effective in relation to its main activity), to have high morals, good human relations, to create for each of its members the opportunity to develop as personality, to be capable of creativity. How can a group gives people more than the sum of the same number of individuals working separately?

Psychologically developed as a team is such a small group in which a differentiated system of various business and person-

al relationships has developed, built on a high moral basis. Such relationships can be called collectivist.

What is a collectivist relationship? They are defined through the concepts of morality, responsibility, openness, collectivism, contact, organization, efficiency and awareness. Morality refers to the construction of intra -collective and extra -collective relations on the norms and values of universal morality. *Responsibility* is interpreted as the voluntary acceptance by the collective of moral and other obligations to society for the fate of each person, regardless of whether he is a member of this collective or not. Responsibility is also manifested in the fact that members of the team confirm their words with deeds, are demanding of themselves and of each other, objectively evaluate their successes and failures, never abandon the work they have begun halfway, consciously obey discipline, put the interests of other people no lower than their own, respectful of the public good.

Team openness refers to the ability to establish and maintain good, collectivist relationships with other teams or their representatives, as well as with newcomers to this team. In practice, the openness of the team is manifested in the provision of comprehensive assistance to other teams, not team members. Openness is one of the most important characteristics by which one can distinguish a collective from social associations that look like it.

The concept of *collectivism* includes the constant concern of the members of the team about its success, the desire to resist what divides, destroys the team. Collectivism is also the development of good traditions, the confidence of each in his team. The feeling of collectivism does not allow its members to remain indifferent if the interests of the collective are affected. In such a team, all important issues are resolved jointly and, if possible, with a common agreement.

For truly collectivist relations, *contact is characteristic*. It refers to good personal, emotionally favorable, friendly, trusting

relationships between team members, including attention to each other, goodwill, respect and tact. Such relationships provide a favorable psychological climate in the team, a calm and friendly atmosphere.

Organization is manifested in the skillful interaction of team members, in the conflict-free distribution of duties -stay between them, in good interchangeability. Organization is also the ability of the team to independently detect and correct shortcomings, prevent and promptly resolve emerging problems. The results of the activities of the team directly depend on the organization.

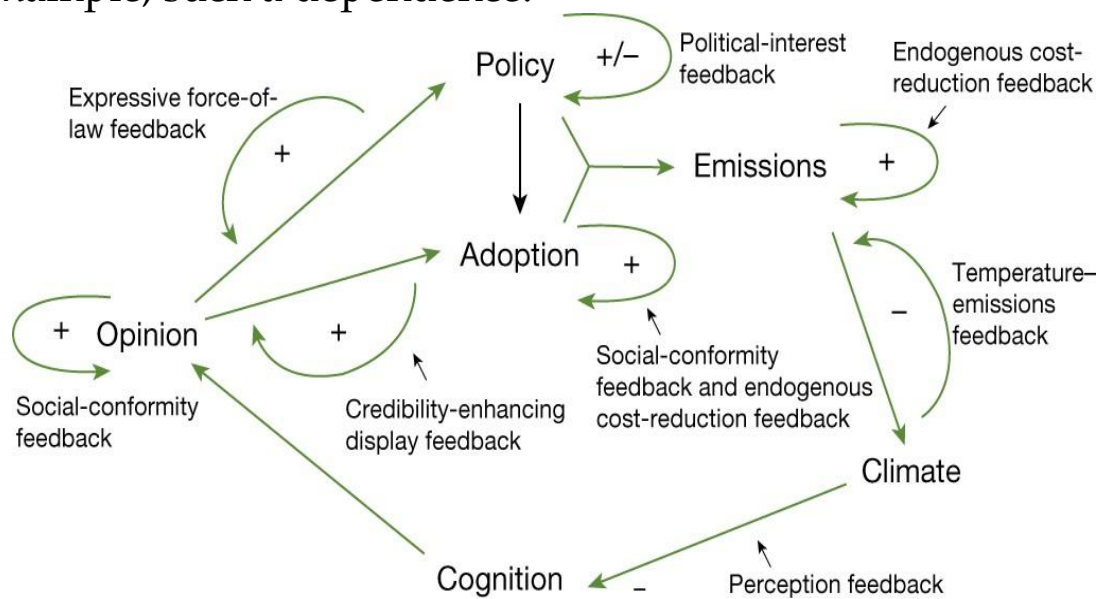
One of the conditions for the successful work of the team and the establishment of trusting relationships is a good knowledge of the team members of each other and the state of affairs in the team. This knowledge is called *awareness*. Sufficient awareness implies knowledge of the tasks facing the team, the content and results of its work, positive and negative aspects, norms and rules of conduct. This also includes a good knowledge of each other by team members.

Efficiency is understood as the success of the team in solving all the tasks it has. One of the most important indicators of the effectiveness of a highly developed team is the super- *additive effect*. It represents the ability of the team as a whole to achieve much higher results in work than can be done by the same size group of people working independently from each other, not united by the system of described relationships.

In reality, there are almost no such small groups that would fully meet all the listed requirements of the collective. The majority of really existing small groups occupies an intermediate position between an underdeveloped group and a highly developed collective. According to some of their socio- psychological parameters, these groups may well claim to be called collectives, but they are seriously inferior in others. Conducted studies of various children's groups show that their strengths, which bring such groups closer to a highly developed team, good personal relationships, collectivism, awareness, and their weaknesses are

isolation, low organization, responsibility and efficiency. The presented model should be considered rather as an ideal to which the collective should strive in the process of its development, rather than as something that reflects the reality of the existence of small groups.

A group on its way to a collective usually goes through a series of stages, including not only progressive changes in its psychology, but also peculiar crises. A.G. Kirpichnik established, for example, such a dependence:



Scheme 2. The indicators of the psychological climate.

any group on the path of its development as a team (if development is assessed according to the psychological climate) necessarily goes through a period of temporary decline. At the very beginning of the development of the group, as a rule, there is an upsurge, accompanied by increased activity, high spirits, enthusiasm, which are then replaced by a more or less noticeable decline. Following him, if the group manages to preserve itself as a community and the previously acquired collectivist qualities, an upsurge is again observed, which, however, does not reach the height at which, from the point of view of the general psychological attitude, the collective was at the beginning.

The temporary psychological decline in the group is explained by the complex internal processes of restructuring group psychology, in particular interpersonal relations, as the group

moves towards the collective. In the beginning, these relationships are built almost exclusively on an emotionally direct basis. The novelty of the situation, the first favorable impressions of the members of the group about each other create an emotionally positive mood in them, which is reflected in the indicators of the psychological climate. Then the newly created group is included in joint activities, and a new, more versatile experience of communicating with each other, received

by group members in the course of their joint activities, reveals that everyone has not only advantages that were more noticeable at the beginning, but also disadvantages. The discovery of this fact, as well as the difficulties of mutual understanding that arise on the basis of such knowledge, reduce the satisfaction received from communicating with each other, and this affects the general emotional mood of the group. It temporarily decreases, but is able to rise again if, in the course of joint activity, the members of the group manage to overcome the interpersonal difficulties that have arisen.

The path of movement of different small groups to the collective is individual, and each of them goes through it in its own way, including the period of crisis. This crisis can come at different periods of the existence of the group, be more or less deep, overcome with varying degrees of success and at different times. But the main thing is - and we have already paid attention to this - that practically every small group has its own internal problems that do not allow it to rise to the level of development of an ideal team.

The content of the concept of the collective changes over time, since this concept is not only psychological, but also social and ideological. It bears a clear imprint of the conditions in which the collective is born, lives and develops. Now times are changing again, and this, of course, should be reflected in the definition of the team, corresponding to the new era. If in understanding the development of the individual such categories as conscience, morality, humanism, kindness, freedom and respon-

sibility have come to the fore, then something similar should happen with the understanding of the collective: after all, theoretically and practically, the individual and the collective are most closely connected with each other. But “as soon as someone begins to behave as if he is just a particle of a “higher” whole, and only this whole plays a determining role, he begins to get real pleasure from the fact that he managed to “throw off” at least part of the responsibility. This tendency to avoid the burden of responsibility is the motive for any form of collectivism. V. Frankl a well-known specialist in the field of personality psychology in the modern world added that a true community is a community of responsible individuals. In principle, it cannot be built on the principles of total collectivity. When it comes to evaluating human actions in a society built on precisely this basis, collectivism often leads to absurd delusions. “Instead of a specific, personally responsible individual, the idea of collectivism substitutes only an average type, and instead of personal responsibility, conformity and respect for social norms”¹. It is impossible not to agree with this kind of not very flattering assessment, if we have in mind not the theory, but the practice of the existence of a collectivist system of education.

INTERPERSONAL RELATIONS IN GROUPS AND COLLECTIVES

Interpersonal relations are a set of connections that develop between people in the form of feelings, judgments and appeals to each other.

Interpersonal relationships include:

- perception and understanding of each other by people;
- interpersonal attractiveness (attraction and sympathy);
- interaction and behavior (in particular, role-playing).

Components of interpersonal relationships:

The cognitive component includes all cognitive mental processes: sensations, perception, representation, memory, thinking,

imagination. Thanks to this component, there is a knowledge of the individual psychological characteristics of partners in joint activities and mutual understanding between people.



Scheme 3. Interpersonal skills

The characteristics of mutual understanding are:

a) adequacy - the accuracy of the mental reflection of the perceived personality;

b) identification - identification by an individual of his personality with the personality of another individual;

Emotional component - includes positive or negative experiences that arise in a person during interpersonal communication with other people:

a) likes or dislikes;

b) satisfaction with oneself, partner, work, etc.;

c) empathy - an emotional response to the experiences of another person, which can manifest itself in the form of empathy (experiencing those feelings experienced by another), sympathy (personal attitude to the experiences of another) and complicity (empathy accompanied by assistance);

Behavioral component - includes facial expressions, gestures, pantomime, speech and actions that express the relationship of a given person to other people, to the group as a whole.

He plays a leading role in regulating relationships.

Types of interpersonal relationships:

1) industrial relations - are formed between employees of organizations in solving industrial, educational, economic, domestic and other problems and imply fixed rules of behavior for employees in relation to each other.

2) domestic relationships - are formed outside of work activities on vacation and at home;

3) formal (official) relations - normatively stipulated relations fixed in official documents;

4) informal (informal) relationships - relationships that really develop in relationships between people and are manifested in preferences, likes or dislikes, mutual assessments, authority, etc.

The nature of interpersonal relationships is influenced by such personal characteristics as gender, nationality, age, temperament, state of health, profession, experience of communicating with people, self-esteem, need for communication, etc. Stages of development of interpersonal relationships:

- the stage of acquaintance - the first stage - the emergence of mutual contact, mutual perception and evaluation of each other by people, which largely determines the nature of the relationship between them;

- friendship stage

- the emergence of interpersonal relationships, the formation of an internal relationship of people to each other on a rational (realization by interacting people of the advantages and disadvantages of each other) and emotional levels (the emergence of appropriate experiences, an emotional response, etc.);

- partnerships

- convergence of views and support to each other, characterized by trust. Interpersonal relations in a group and collective should be considered in statics, that is, in the form in which they have formed at a given point in time.

In psychology, collective action is commonly defined as

any action undertaken by an individual as a representative of the group and aimed at improving the conditions of the group as a whole (Wright, Taylor, & Moghaddam, 1990; also see Van Zomeren & Iyer, 2009). As such collective action typically aims at achieving some kind of social change. The social identity model of collective action (SIMCA; Van Zomeren, Postmes, & Spears, 2008) offers an encompassing psychological model that outlines different motivations for participation in collective action. The model offers a prominent role to individuals' social identity (i.e., that part of one's identity defined by membership in a social group), which is argued to underlie individuals' experience of group-based anger about the negative conditions of the group and their group efficacy beliefs to achieve a positive change in the group's conditions. In turn, all three variables uniquely predict collective action. Social identity is Self-Categorization.

Theory Social identity theory was proposed in social psychology by Tajfel and his colleagues (Tajfel, 1978; Tajfel & Turner, 1979). Social identity refers to the ways that people's self-concepts are based on their membership in social groups. Examples include sports teams, religions, nationalities, occupations, sexual orientation, ethnic groups, and gender. Social identity theory addresses the ways that social identities affect people's attitudes and behaviors regarding their in-group and the outgroup. Social identities are most influential when individuals consider membership in a particular group to be central to their self-concept and they feel strong emotional ties to the group. Affiliation with a group confers self-esteem, which helps to sustain the social identity. Some key processes associated with important social identities include within-group assimilation (pressures to conform to the in-group's norms) and forms of intergroup bias (positively evaluating one's in-group relative to outgroup [i.e., in-group favoritism] and possibly negatively evaluating the outgroup). In developmental psychology, social identity theory has been used to explain conformity and socialization in

peer groups (e.g., Archer, 1992; Harris, 1995; Leaper, 2000) and group-based prejudice (e.g., Bigler & Liben, 2007; Nesdale, 2004).

Theory and research on social identity complemented psychology's historical emphasis on personal identity (e.g., Erikson, 1968; Marcia, 1980). Whereas social identity refers to people's self-categorizations in relation to their group memberships (the "we"), personal identity refers to the unique ways that people define themselves as individuals (the "I"). For example, this might include people's personal interests and values. To incorporate both domains, Turner and his colleagues (Turner, 1985; Turner et al., 1987) introduced self-categorization theory. That is, people's self-concepts (i.e., self-categorizations) comprise both personal identity and social identity. Depending on the social context, one's personal or social identity may be more salient for the person (Hewstone, Rubin, & Willis, 2002). For example, when alone or interacting with a close friend, personal identity may guide behavior. In contrast, when interacting with a group of peers on the playground, social identity may be more important. Research indicates that group stereotyping and prejudice are more likely when social identities are salient; conversely, downplaying the salience of intergroup differences can mitigate prejudice (Bigler & Liben, 2006; Hewstone et al., 2002). For example, assigning children from different social groups (e.g., based on gender or race/ethnicity) to work cooperatively on a task can reduce prejudice.

Review questions:

1. The concept of communication.
2. Explain the main functions of communication.
3. What do you understand by pedagogical communication?
4. Verbal and non-verbal means of communication.
5. What are the functions of speech?
6. What is identification?

PERSONALITY AS AN OBJECT OF PEDAGOGY. 1§ PEDAGOGY AS A SCIENCE

The etymology of the word pedagogy goes back to ancient Greece (VI-IV centuries BC). It was formed from the Greek words (origin) - child and (ago) - I lead - the science of raising a person : literally - child breeding or - child - rearing . A child who was brought up at home was looked after by a special slave " pedagogues ", who accompanied the children of his master to school, served him in the classroom and outside of them. Later, teachers were already civilian employees who were engaged in instructing, upbringing and educating children, in the book of Avesto , where they received the name " master " . Gradually rethinking , the concept of pedagogy began to be used in a broader sense to educate, to develop spiritually and physically, that is, teachers are already civilian employees who were engaged in instructing and educating children (directing spiritual and bodily development) .

It should be noted that each person acquires certain pedagogical knowledge by experience, establishes some dependencies between various pedagogical phenomena. So, already primitive people had knowledge of education, which they passed on from one generation to another in the form of customs, traditions, games, worldly rules. This knowledge was later reflected in sayings and proverbs (for example, "repetition is the mother of learning", "live for a century - learn for a century", etc.), in myths and legends, fairy tales and anecdotes that made up the content of folk pedagogy , whose role in the life of a society, an individual family, a particular person is extremely large, as it helps to interact with other people, communicate with them, engage in self-improvement, and perform parental functions.

Folk pedagogy, having arisen as a response to an objective social need for education, due to the development of people's labor activity, of course, cannot replace books, schools, teachers, and science. But it is older than pedagogical science, education as a social institution, and originally existed independently of

them.

However, pedagogical science, in contrast to everyday knowledge in the field of education and training, generalizes disparate facts, establishes causal relationships between phenomena. She does not so much describe them as explains, answers the questions why and what changes occur in human development under the influence of training and education. Scientific knowledge is necessary to manage the pedagogical process of personality development. The great Russian teacher K.D. Ushinsky warned against empiricism in pedagogy, rightly noting that it is not enough to rely only on personal, even successful, experience in education. He compared pedagogical practice without theory with charlatanism in medicine.

The pedagogical law is "a pedagogical category for designating objective, essential, necessary, general, steadily recurring phenomena under certain pedagogical conditions, the relationship between the components of the pedagogical system, reflecting the mechanisms of self-realization, functioning and self-development of an integral pedagogical system." Regularity in pedagogy is a particular manifestation of the law, a part in relation to the concept of "law".

Pedagogical principle - a regulatory requirement, a criterion for improving the effectiveness of pedagogical practice; "one of the pedagogical categories, which is the main normative provision, which is based on a known pedagogical pattern and characterizes the most general strategy for solving a certain class of pedagogical tasks (problems), serves both as a backbone factor for the development of pedagogical theory and a criterion for continuous improvement of pedagogical practice in order to improve it efficiency."

The rules of pedagogy are applied recommendations, prescriptions, regulatory requirements for the implementation of a particular principle of education and upbringing.

Development is a process of quantitative and qualitative changes, inherited and acquired personality traits. Formation -

the process of development and formation of the influence under external influences; the process of becoming a person as a subject and object of social relations and various activities. Becoming - the acquisition by a person in the process of development of new personality traits, approaching a certain state or level of development; development result.

Pedagogy depends on the sciences with which it is connected by the logic of research work, the general state of scientific knowledge.

Quality control of education.

Admission to educational institutions is carried out on the principle of providing equal opportunities for education to all applicants, with the exception of certain categories of persons who may be granted benefits in accordance with the law. Educational institutions are obliged to familiarize applicants and (or) their parents or other legal representatives with the charter, license (for non-state educational institutions), certificate of state accreditation, curriculum and other documents regulating educational activities, rights and obligations of students. Children with physical, mental or sensory disabilities are accepted to school with the consent of their parents or other legal representatives and the conclusion of the medical- psychological-pedagogical commission.

Admission to some educational institutions (universities, academic lyceums, Presidential, creative, specialized schools, etc.) is carried out on a competitive basis.

Admission to state higher educational institutions and professional educational institutions is carried out on the basis of a state scholarship and (or) a payment agreement. Admission of foreign citizens to state educational institutions of Uzbekistan is carried out on a paid basis (except for cases when a state scholarship is allocated). The procedure for admission to state educational institutions is determined by the Cabinet of Ministers. The procedure for admission to non-state educational institutions is determined by these educational institutions. The parameters for

admission to higher education institutions based on state grants are set by the President. Upon admission to higher educational institutions for preferential contingent, additional admission parameters are set.

§ *PEDAGOGY IN MEDICAL EDUCATION.*

The problem of pedagogy as a science about the organization of the process of formation of the personality of a medical worker is relevant and important today. On the shoulders of medical workers, especially doctors, lies the responsibility for the lives of people, for the future of the nation. A modern doctor, interacting with patients, with colleagues, must take the position not only of a medical worker, but also the position of a teacher, educator, assistant, friend, mentor. All these qualities are helped by pedagogy to realize a person. Knowledge in the field of pedagogy helps the doctor to become a worthy representative of the profession, to easily communicate with different people, while showing high professionalism and generosity.



Scheme 3. Pedagogical content knowledge

Practice shows that faith in healing is extremely important for many patients. Thanks to the possession of psychological, pedagogical and communicative knowledge, the doctor is able

to evaluate the effectiveness of their application to a particular person. Respect for the patient is at the heart of medical practice.

The great teacher A.S. Makarenko wrote about mutual respect, which underlies human relations: "To teach to love, to teach to recognize love, to teach to be happy - it means to teach to respect oneself, to teach human

dignity." They are doctors who, by their personal example and professional actions, teach people to love themselves, their health, take care of others, appreciate life in all its manifestations.

Thus, pedagogy continues to play an extremely important role in the professional activities of a doctor. It forms the personality of a specialist, his value orientations, the culture of relationships with people. Currently, there is an increased interest in the study of pedagogical disciplines among the students of medical universities. It becomes obvious that, having studied not only specialized disciplines, but also the basics of pedagogy, a graduate of a medical university can become a worthy doctor.

Pedagogy is the scientific basis for organizing the process of formation of the personality of a medical worker.

The formation and personal development of a physician in the process of obtaining a higher medical education, mastering the basics of the culture of medical activity is based on the development of pedagogical knowledge.

The contribution to the development of higher medical education was made by medical teachers M.Ya. Mudrov, N.I. Pirogov, I.M. Sechenov, S.P. Botkin, I.P. Pavlov, S.S. Korsakov, V.M. Bekhterev, P.B. Gannushkin, A.V. Vishnevsky, A.N. Bakulev and others.

The concept of "pedagogy" has several meanings (scheme 4.). Scheme 4. The concept of pedagogy

<p>a science that studies the special activity of introducing human beings to the life of society</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - the science of human education - the sphere of human activity in which the development and theoretical systematization of knowledge about pedagogical reality takes place 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - the science of socially-personally determined medical education, characterized by goal-setting, creating conditions for students to master the basics of professional activity and development - the art of healing and communication with the patient - pedagogical component in medical education
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Signs of pedagogy as a science:

1. Emergence from the needs of society: pedagogy is the science of educating a person at all age stages of his development.
2. The presence of the subject of research: the upbringing of a person is a special function of society.
3. The presence of a categorical apparatus: upbringing, education, training, development, formation.
4. Availability of research methods: pedagogical experiment, educational tests, pedagogical observation. Experienced work. Use of psychological and sociological tests.
5. Science is a result, a totality, a system of reliable and generalized knowledge: pedagogy searches for the most effective pedagogical systems, constructs them, and identifies dependencies under which these systems can most effectively function.

There are various approaches to determining the object and subject of pedagogy (Scheme 3.).

Scheme 5. Subject, object of pedagogy.

General Pedagogy	Pedagogy in Medicine
Subject	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - a way of seeing an object from the standpoint of the science of pedagogy - the pedagogical process, from the position of which the education of a person is studied and designed 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - pedagogical interaction between the participants of the educational process and medical worker-teacher – student / future medical worker – patient
Object	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - the area of reality that science explores - special phenomena of reality that determine the development of the 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - medical education

Functions of Pedagogy

Functions of general pedagogy	Functions of Pedagogy in Medical Education
<p>Scientific and theoretical: study, description, explanation of the organization of the pedagogical process</p> <p>Structural and technical: identifying the success or difficulties of the pedagogical process</p>	<p>Analytical: theoretical study, description, generalization of pedagogical experience.</p> <p>Prognostic: management of educational policy, development of learning strategies.</p> <p>Projective-constructive: creation of new pedagogical technologies, implementation of the results of pedagogical research into practice</p>

The pedagogical situation in the work of a medical worker:

- situation of action;
- pedagogical activities;

pedagogical cases (training medical workers in certain techniques and skills, transferring personal experience to colleagues, drawing up a methodology for taking medications for patients, teaching relatives how to care for seriously ill patients, developing a patient's responsible attitude to treatment, persuading the patient to follow a certain lifestyle).

§ PERSONAL DEVELOPMENT AS A PEDAGOGICAL PROBLEM

One of the complex and key problems of pedagogical theory and practice is the problem of personality and its development in specially organized conditions. It has different aspects, therefore it is considered by different sciences: age-related physiology and anatomy, sociology, developmental psychology, child and educational psychology, etc. Pedagogy studies and identifies the most effective conditions for the harmonious development of the individual in the process of training and education.

In foreign pedagogy and psychology, there are three main areas on the problem of personality development: biological, sociological and biosocial.

Representatives of the biological direction, considering the personality as a purely natural being, explain all human behavior by the action of the needs, drives and instincts inherent in him from birth (Z. Freud and others). A person is forced to obey the requirements of society and at the same time constantly suppress natural needs. To hide this constant struggle with himself, he "puts on a mask", dissatisfaction with natural needs is replaced by engaging in some type of activity. All the phenomena of public life (strike, revolutions), according to representatives of this trend, are natural for ordinary people who have a desire for

attack, cruelty, and rebellion from birth. However, real life shows that people sometimes act even contrary to their vital needs, fulfilling the duty of a patriot, fighter and just a citizen.

Representatives of the sociological trend believe that although a person is born as a biological being, in the course of his life he gradually socializes due to the influence on him of those social groups with which he communicates.

Representatives of the biosocial direction consider mental processes (sensation, perception, thinking, etc.) as a biological nature, and the orientation, interests, abilities of the individual as social phenomena. Such a division of personality cannot explain either its behavior or its development.

Modern pedagogical science interprets the personality as a whole, in which the biological is inseparable from the social. Changes in the biology of the individual affect not only the characteristics of its activities, but also the way of life. However, the decisive role here is played by those motives, interests, goals etc. the results of social life, which, determining the whole appearance of the individual, give her strength to overcome her physical shortcomings and character traits (irascibility, shyness, etc.).

Personality, being a product of social life, is at the same time a biological organism. The relationship of the social and biological in the formation and behavior of the individual is extremely complex and has a different impact on it at different stages of human development, in different situations and types of communication with other people.

Personality is an integral mental system that performs certain functions and arises in a person in order to serve these functions. The main functions of the individual are the creative development of social experience and inclusion in the system of social relations. All aspects of personality are found only in activities and in relationships with other people. Personality exists, manifests itself and is formed in activity and communication. Hence the most important characteristic of a person: this is the

social appearance of a person, with all its manifestations connected with the life of the people around him .

The contradictions between the new and the old, which arise and are overcome in the process of training and education, act as the driving forces for the development of the individual. These contradictions include:

- the contradiction between the new needs generated by activity and the possibilities of their satisfaction;
- the contradiction between the increased physical and spiritual capabilities of the child and the old, previously established forms of relationships and activities;
- the contradiction between the growing demands on the part of society, a group of adults and the actual level of development of the individual.

These contradictions are typical for all ages, but in each of them they show their own specifics. The resolution of contradictions occurs through the formation of higher levels of activity. As a result, the child moves to a higher stage of his development. The need is satisfied, the contradiction is removed. But a satisfied need gives rise to a new need, of a higher order. One contradiction is replaced by another, and development continues.

In the process of training and education, general contradictions are concretized, acquiring more vivid forms.

§ THE ESSENCE OF SOCIALIZATION AND ITS STAGES

The interaction of a person with society is denoted by the concept of "socialization", which has an interdisciplinary status and is widely used in pedagogy. However, its content is not stable and unambiguous.

Society, in order to reproduce the social system and preserve its social structures, seeks to form social stereotypes and standards (group, class, ethnic, professional, etc.), patterns of role behavior. In order not to be in opposition to society, a person assimilates this social experience by entering the social envi-

ronment, the system of existing social ties. The trend of social typification of the personality allows us to consider socialization as a process of adaptation and integration of a person in society through the assimilation of social experience, values, norms, attitudes inherent in both society as a whole and individual groups.

However, due to its natural activity, a person retains and develops a tendency towards autonomy, independence, freedom, the formation of one's own position, and unique individuality. The consequence of this trend is the development and transformation of not only the individual, but also society.

So, the essential meaning of socialization is revealed at the intersection of such processes as adaptation, integration, self-development and self-realization. Their dialectical unity ensures the optimal development of the individual throughout a person's life in interaction with the environment.

Socialization is not a one-act or one-time process. A person lives in a constantly changing social environment, experiences its various influences, is included in new activities and relationships, is forced to perform other social roles. This leads to the fact that during his life he learns new social experience, and also simultaneously reproduces certain social relations, influencing his environment in a certain way. Socialization is a continuous process that lasts throughout life.

Education and personality formation

The processes and results of socialization are internally contradictory, since ideally a socialized person must meet social requirements and at the same time resist negative trends in the development of society, life circumstances that hinder the development of his individuality.

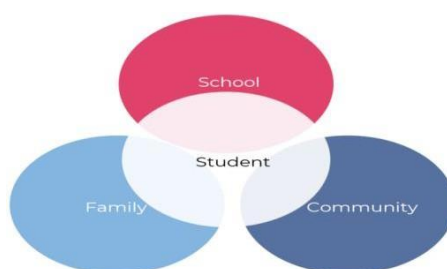
Unlike socialization that occurs in the conditions of spontaneous interaction of a person with the environment, upbringing is a process of purposeful and consciously controlled socialization (family, religious, school education), it acts as a kind of mechanism for managing socialization processes. Because of this, education has two main functions: streamlining the entire

spectrum of influences (physical, social, psychological, etc.) on the personality and creating conditions for accelerating the processes of socialization in order to develop the personality. In accordance with these functions, education makes it possible to overcome or weaken the negative consequences of socialization, to give it a humanistic orientation, to claim scientific potential for predicting and constructing pedagogical strategy and tactics.

Types (models) of upbringing are determined by the level of development of society, their social stratification (correlation of social groups and strata) and socio-political orientations. Therefore, education is carried out differently in totalitarian and democratic societies. Each of them reproduces its own type of personality, its own system of dependencies and interactions, its own degree of freedom and responsibility of the individual.

Shavkat Mirziyoyev, in his speech at a conference in Tashkent on June 15, dedicated to ensuring social stability, preserving the true essence and significance of our sacred religion of Islam, paid special attention to the issues of educating the younger generation.

These tasks place great responsibility on the school, family, mahalla, and the entire community.



As the head of our state noted, one of the most important issues that always worries us concerns the moral image of our youth, their worldview. Today time is changing rapidly. Who feels these changes the most? Of course, youth. Let the youth keep pace with the times and meet its requirements. But, at the same time, it must not lose its national identity. The thought of who we are, the descendants of what great ancestors we are, may it always echo in her hearts and call to be committed to national identity. How will we achieve this? Only through up-

bringing.

The work carried out in our country to improve all parts of the sphere of education and upbringing - the system of pre-school, school, secondary specialized and higher education, the construction of new and reconstruction of existing educational institutions will give its results in the formation of the young generation as harmoniously developed personalities.

In all approaches to education, the teacher acts as an active principle. In this regard, the question arises about the tasks that are recognized to be solved by purposeful socialization, the organizer of which is the teacher.

Personality formation is a process and result of socialization, upbringing, and self-development. To form means to give a certain form or completeness.



The essence of the development and formation of personality is, firstly, the development of the cognitive sphere; secondly, the formation of a new level of the child's affective-need sphere, which allows him to act not directly but guided by consciously set goals, moral requirements, and feelings; thirdly, the emergence of relatively stable forms of behavior and

activity that form the basis for the formation of his character; and finally, the development of a social orientation, i.e., the appeal to the group of peers and the assimilation of the moral requirements that they impose on him.

Factors of socialization and personality formation.

Socialization, as already noted, is carried out in various situations that arise as a result of the interaction of many circumstances. It is the cumulative influence of these circumstances on a person that requires certain behaviors and activities from him. The factors of socialization are such circumstances under which conditions are created for the processes of socialization to proceed. How many circumstances, options for their combination, and factors of socialization? It can even be argued that not all of them are known yet, and those that we know are not fully understood.

In domestic and Western science, there are various classifications of socialization factors. However, we consider the most logical and productive for pedagogy the one proposed by A.V. Mudrik. He singled out the main factors of socialization and combined them into three groups:

- macro-factors (space, planet, world, country, society, state) affect the socialization of all inhabitants of the planet or very large groups of people;
- mesofactors (gr. mesos, middle, intermediate): groups of people distinguished by nationality, by place and type of population (region, village, city, town), by belonging to the audience of certain mass communication networks (radio, television, cinema);
- micro factors (family, peer groups, educational, professional, and social organizations) have a direct impact on specific people.

Socialization is carried out using a wide range of means specific to a particular society, social stratum, and age of a person. These include methods of feeding and caring for a baby, methods of encouragement and punishment in the family, in peer groups, in educational and professional groups, and various types of relationships in the main areas of human life (communication, play, cognition, subject-practical, spiritual, and practical activities, sports).

The better organized a social group is, the more opportunities it has to exert a socializing influence on an individual. However, social groups are unequal in their ability to influence a personality at various stages of its ontogenetic development. So, in preschool age, the family has the greatest influence; in adolescence and youth, the influence of peer groups increases and is most effective; and in adulthood, the estate, labor or professional team, and individuals come first in importance. There are factors of socialization, the value of which is preserved throughout a person's life. This is a nation, a mentality, and an ethnicity.

Factors of socialization are at the same time factors of personality formation if they are supplemented by a biological background, which in foreign pedagogy in a number of cases is assigned a paramount role. So, according to some scientists, the environment, training, and education are only conditions for self-development, the manifestation of naturally conditioned mental characteristics. In support of their conclusions, they refer to data from a comparative study of the development of twins.

Indeed, the influence of the biological factor on the formation of personality cannot be ignored just because a person is an organism whose life is subject to both the general laws of biology and the special laws of anatomy and physiology. It is known that the ideological heritage of the past and civic consciousness received a relevant sound in independent Uzbekistan, and therefore the study of the historical prerequisites for their formation is of practical value. "In solving such urgent problems, we will rely on the national traditions that have been historically formed over many centuries and the rich spiritual heritage of our people," Sh.M. Mirziyoyev noted in this regard.

But it is not personality traits that are inherited, but certain inclinations. Makings: a natural disposition toward a particular activity There are two types of inclinations: universal (structure of the brain, central nervous system, receptors) and individual (features of the type of nervous system, analyzers).

Thus, natural features are important prerequisites but not

the driving forces of personality formation. The brain as a biological formation is a prerequisite for the emergence of consciousness, but consciousness is a product of human social existence. The more complex education is, the less it depends on the natural characteristics of a person.

Natural features cause different ways and methods of formation of mental properties and can affect the level of human achievement in any area. At the same time, their impact on the individual is not direct but indirect. Not a single congenital feature is neutral, as it is socialized and permeated with a personal attitude (for example, dwarfism, lameness, etc.). The role of natural factors at different age stages is not the same: the younger the age, the more natural features affect the formation of personality.

At the same time, the role of social factors in the formation of personality cannot be overestimated. Even Aristotle wrote that "the soul is an unwritten book of nature; experience puts its writings on its pages." D. Locke believed that a person is born with a pure soul, like a board covered with wax. Upbringing writes on this board what he pleases. The French philosopher K.A. Helvetius taught that all people from birth have the same potential for mental and moral development, and differences in mental characteristics are explained solely by the influence of the environment and educational influences. In this case, the environment is understood metaphysically as something unchanging, fatally predetermining the fate of a person, and a person is considered a passive object of influence by the environment.

The reassessment of the role of the environment and the assertion that human development is determined by the environment (Helvetius, Diderot, Owen) led to the conclusion that in order to change a person, it is necessary to change the environment. But the environment is, first of all, people, so it turns out to be a vicious circle: in order to change the environment, you need to change people. However, a person is not a passive product of the environment; he also influences it. By changing

the environment, a person thereby changes himself. Change and the development of personality are carried out in its activities.

Recognition of the activity of the individual as the leading factor in its formation raises the question of purposeful activity and the self-development of the individual, i.e., continuous work on oneself and one's own spiritual growth. Self-development makes it possible to consistently complicate the tasks and content of education, to implement an age-specific and individual approach, and to form a student's creative individuality. At the same time, it allows for collective education.

Modern pedagogy proceeds from the recognition that the free and harmonious development of the individual is possible in conditions of collective activity.

One cannot but agree with the fact that, under certain conditions, the collective levels the individual; on the other hand, the development and manifestation of individuality are possible only in the collective. The organization of various forms of collective activity (educational, educational labor, artistic and aesthetic, etc.) contributes to the manifestation of the creative potential of the individual. The role of the collective in the formation of the ideological and moral orientation of the individual and his civic position is indispensable. In a team, under conditions of empathy and awareness of the personal involvement of interacting people, emotional development is carried out. The team, with its public opinion, traditions, and customs, is indispensable as a factor in the formation of a generalized positive experience as well as socially significant skills and abilities of social behavior.

The psychology of education studies the patterns of the formation of a person as a person under the conditions of a purposeful organization of the pedagogical process. It considers education as a process carried out through the interaction of educators and educated people – the interaction of the most educated, who are not only objects but also subjects of education.

Revealing the psychological mechanisms of the formation

of the moral- volitional sphere of the individual, moral consciousness, moral ideas, moral concepts, principles, beliefs, the moral basis of actions, moral feelings, habits, and ways of behavior that express attitudes towards other people and society, the psychology of education reveals the general laws of active "designing" of the personality of a growing person, the principles, conditions, and specifics of the organization of the educational process at different stages of modern education.

Revealing the patterns of mental activity of students under conditions of educational influences and the psychological foundations of self-education, the psychology of education studies the mechanisms of these influences on the formation of personality traits.

The question of the conditions for the formation of a personality, of the relationship between the biological and the social, is decisive in understanding the personality.

The fundamental importance of this issue is explained by the fact that the recognition of the leading role of social factors means the possibility of the active influence of society on the development of the individual and focuses on the elimination of social causes that impede versatile development. Recognition of the determining role of the biological nature of man leads to the assertion that the role of society in the formation of personality is reduced only to smoothing the animal nature in man.

As mentioned above, education in Uzbekistan places great emphasis on the spirituality of the masses and, accordingly, on the spiritual education of each individual. The Republic devotes sufficient funds and attention to the restoration of spiritual values and the rich spiritual heritage of our ancestors. The President, I.A. Karimov, in his work, "The harmonious development of the generation is the basis of the process of Uzbekistan," says: "Care for the younger generation, the desire to raise a healthy, harmoniously developed person, is our national character." Parents have their own duties and obligations to the child, the fulfillment of which will be counted in the highest court. If you ask

elders from respected and respectable families about this, they will briefly list these duties for you: to give a worthy name; to hand over a good teacher; to give education, knowledge, and a profession; to marry; to build a home for them.

Today, we attach great importance to these issues. Therefore, our public is very interested in bills aimed at achieving these goals, and reform in the field of education today is becoming the most urgent problem, whose solution will determine our future.

Each state and each nation are strong not only by their underground and aboveground natural resources but also, first of all, by their high culture and spirituality. Therefore, in our country, from the first steps along the path of independence, great importance is attached to the revival and further development of our great spirituality, the improvement of the system of national education, the strengthening of its national foundation, and raising them to the level of world standards in harmony with the requirements of the time.

It should be noted that only communication with other people in joint activities is the basis for the formation of personality. Depending on the environment—the source of satisfaction of needs—a person at the same time actively influences it and consciously transforms it and himself in the process of purposeful activity. It is the conscious active activity of a person that is the basis for the formation of his personality and his mental characteristics. Personality is a special quality (A.N.Leontiev) that a natural individual acquires in the system of social relations on the basis of activity, communication, and cognition, formed by moral requirements, assessments, consciously set goals, and the ability to manage their actions and activities.

The core of the integral structure of the personality is the motivational sphere of its activity, which has a complex, hierarchical structure of motives of a lower and higher order. The degree of generalization and stability of higher motives, which do not isolate the personality but merge its interests with those of

society and create harmony in development, testifies to the formation of a personality that meets the moral standards of our society. Therefore, it is important to form a personality with stable mental properties that determine the orientation of relations and psychological readiness for socially useful work and social activity.

The formation of a personality, starting from the early stages of development and up to harmonious formation, is a long, complex, and multifaceted process. Education deals with a constantly developing qualitative phenomenon: a person whose personality and activities, needs, motives, and attitudes are different at different age stages.

Accounting for the uniqueness of individual age periods is a necessary condition for organizing the educational process. However, taking this into account does not mean adapting the content and forms of educational work to the level of development of students of a certain age. It is important to take into account the prospects for development, ensuring the formation of these qualities of the child's personality, which at this stage are only in their infancy but to which the future belongs. It is in this case that the process of designing a personality is organized, the construction of which, of course, requires taking into account the numerous individual needs of the personality, which undoubtedly influence the formation of its moral sphere.

In recent decades, there has been a growing trend towards a synthesized, holistic consideration of personality from the standpoint of different theories and approaches.

One of these concepts was the theory of the American psychologist E. Erickson. She adheres to the so-called epigenetic principle of the genetic predetermination of the stages that a person necessarily goes through in his personal development from birth to the end of his days.

A special position on the issue of personal development is taken by the American psychologist E. Fromm. He gave the most philosophically correct interpretation of the goals and ob-

jectives of mental development in a modern democratic society. Personal development is the recognition and realization of the unique possibilities that each person has.

The personality must develop freely, and the freedom of its development in practice means not being subject to any higher power or purpose except for the self-improvement of the personality.

§ *ACCOUNTING FOR INDIVIDUAL CHARACTERISTICS*

In the development of a person, there are general and particular. The general is characteristic of all people of a certain age; the special distinguishes the individual. A special place in a person is called individuality, and a person with a pronounced specialness is called individuality.

Individuality is characterized by a set of intellectual, strong-willed, moral, social, and other traits that constantly distinguish one person from other people. The human race is generously gifted by nature; there were not, are not, and will not be two identical people on Earth. Each person is unique in their individuality.

Individuality is expressed in individual characteristics. The emergence of individual characteristics is due to the fact that each person goes through his own special path of development, acquiring on it the most diverse typological features of higher nervous activity. The latter affect the originality of the created qualities. Individual characteristics include the originality of sensations, perception, thinking, memory, imagination, peculiarities of interests, inclinations, abilities, temperament, and personality character. Individual characteristics affect the development of personality; they largely determine the formation of all qualities.

Should individual characteristics be taken into account in education and training? It would seem that the answer to this question should be unambiguously positive. But it is not so. There are significant differences among specialists. The first

point of view is that a mass school cannot and should not take individuality into account and adapt to each individual student. All children should receive the same “portions” of teacher care. There should be no difference in the education of the true and the lazy, the gifted and the capable, the diligent, the inquisitive, and those who are not interested in anything in the world. A person who has graduated from one or another type of educational institution is characterized by a common, identical standard of training and upbringing defined in this educational institution.

Hegel expressed this idea very convincingly: “The originality of people should not be valued too highly. On the contrary, the opinion that the mentor must carefully study the individuality of each student, conform to it, and develop it is completely empty and not based on anything. There is no time. The originality of children is tolerable in the family circle, but at school, life begins according to the established order, according to the rules common to all. Here, you have to take care that children wean themselves from their originality so that they know how and want to follow the general rules and assimilate the results of general education. Only this transformation of the soul constitutes education.” (Hegel. *Soch. M.*, 1946; T. VII; S. 82).

Local pedagogy adheres to other positions: education should take individuality into account as much as possible. An individual approach, as an important principle of pedagogy, is the management of human development based on a deep knowledge of personality traits and living conditions. The pedagogy of an individual approach does not mean the adaptation of the tasks and the main content of education and upbringing to an individual student, but the adaptation of the forms and methods of pedagogical influence to individual characteristics in order to ensure a certain level of personality development. An individual approach creates the most favorable opportunities for the development of cognitive forces, activities, inclinations, and talents in each student. An individual approach is especially

needed for "heavy" pupils, incompetent schoolchildren, and children with a pronounced developmental delay.

Questions and tasks

1. What is age periodization?
2. What is the basis of age periodization?
3. What are the age features? Why is it necessary to take age characteristics into account in the process of education and upbringing?
4. What is acceleration? What pedagogical problems does acceleration raise?
5. Formulate the patterns of physical development.
6. What is the essence of the law of uneven development?
7. What periods are called sensitive?
8. What are individual characteristics, and what views exist on taking them into account in the educational process?

THE PROCESS OF MODERN EDUCATION AND UPBRINGING

§ *THE CONCEPT OF TRAINING*

Typically, training is characterized as follows: it is the transfer of certain knowledge, skills, and abilities to a person. At first glance, this indicates the situation of any training. Indeed, before learning, a person does not have any knowledge, skills, or abilities. After training, they appear. Where did they come from? From the teacher, who has this knowledge and skill and passes it on to the student. This transfer process is called learning. But knowledge, skills, and abilities, as well as representations and concepts, are not physical objects that can be passed from hand to hand or "shifted" from head to head. Knowledge, skills, and abilities are the forms and results of certain processes in the human psyche. This means that they can arise in a person's head only as a result of his own activity. They cannot be simply "received" from someone; they must be obtained as a result of the mental activity of the student himself. If there is no counteractivity, then he does not have any knowledge, skills, or abilities. Every teacher knows this well from personal experience, when the fact that students have no counter-mental activity is denoted by such words as "inattention", "laziness" and "inability".

The influence of the teacher stimulates the activity of the student while at the same time achieving a certain, pre-set goal, thereby controlling this activity.

Therefore, learning can also be imagined as a process of stimulating the external and internal activities of the student and managing them. The teacher creates the necessary conditions for the activity of the student, directs it, controls it, and provides the necessary means and information for it.

But the very process of forming a person's knowledge, skills, and abilities occurs only as a result of his own activity.

What kind of student activity should be created and how should it be directed in order to form full-fledged knowledge,

skills, and abilities? How should training be organized to have the greatest effect? The answers to these questions depend on how the main problem is solved: what internal and external activity of the student is reflected in his knowledge, skills, and abilities and generates them?

There are five primary educational learning theories: behaviorism, cognitive constructivism, humanism, and connectivism.

Additional learning theories include transformative, social, and experiential.

Understanding learning theories can result in a variety of outcomes, from improving communication between students and teachers to determining what students learn.

"Learning is defined as a process that brings together personal and environmental experiences and influences for acquiring, enriching, or modifying one's knowledge, skills, values, attitudes, behaviors, and worldviews," notes the International Bureau of Education. "Learning theories develop hypotheses that describe how this process takes place."

Generally, there are five widely accepted learning theories that teachers rely on:

- Behaviorism and learning theory
- Cognitive learning theory
- Constructivism as learning theory
- Humanism: learning theory
- Connectivism: learning theory

Educational theorists, teachers, and experts believe these theories can inform successful approaches to teaching and serve as a foundation for developing lesson plans and curriculum.

What are learning theories?

Theories in education didn't begin in earnest until the early 20th century, but curiosity about how humans learn dates back to the ancient Greek philosophers Socrates, Plato, and Aristotle. They explored whether knowledge and truth could be found within oneself (rationalism) or through external observation

(empiricism).

By the 19th century, psychologists had begun to answer this question with scientific studies. The goal was to objectively understand how people learn and then develop teaching approaches accordingly.

THEORY	EXPLANATION	APPLICATION
Behaviorism	As Simply Psychology puts it: "Behaviorism is only concerned with observable stimulus-response behaviors , as they can be studied in a systematic and observable manner."	Learning is based on a system of routines that "drill" information into a student's memory bank, as well as positive feedback from teachers and an educational institution itself. If students do an excellent job, they receive positive reinforcement and are signaled out for recognition.
Cognitivism	Learning relies on both external factors (like information or data) and the internal thought process.	Developed in the 1950s, this theory moves away from behaviorism to focus on the mind's role in learning. According to the International Bureau of Education : "In cognitive psychology, learning is understood as the acquisition of knowledge: the learner is an information-processor who absorbs information, undertakes cognitive operations on it and stocks it in memory."

Constructivism	The learner builds upon his or her previous experience and understanding to "construct" a new understanding.	"The passive view of teaching views the learner as 'an empty vessel' to be filled with knowledge," explains Simply Psychology, "whereas constructivism states that learners construct meaning only through active engagement with the world (such as experiments or real- world problem solving)."
Humanism	A " learner- centric approach " in which the potential is the focus rather than the method or materials.	With the understanding that people are inherently good, humanism focuses on creating an environment conducive to self-actualization. In doing so, learners' needs are met and they are then free to determine their own goals while the teacher assists in meeting those learning goals.
Connectivism	Informed by the digital age, connectivism departs from constructivism by identifying and remediating gaps in knowledge.	Strongly influenced by technology, connectivism focuses on a learner's ability to frequently source and update accurate information. Knowing how and where to find the best information is as important as the information itself.

In the 20th century, the debate among educational theorists centered on behaviorist theory versus cognitive psychology. Or, in other words, do people learn by responding to external stimuli or by using their brains to construct knowledge from external data?

The five educational learning theories.

Today, much research, study, and debate have given rise to the following five learning theories:

Why are learning theories important?

The pursuit of knowledge is part of the human condition. Consequently, many scientists, psychologists, and opinion leaders have dedicated their careers to the study of learning theories. Understanding how people learn is an important step in optimizing the learning process and self-development.

Fundamental knowledge about how people learn, and in particular about how a person learns and develops cognitively, is necessary for all educators and people in general.

§ DIDACTICS, ITS OBJECT, SUBJECT

From Greek, *didaktikos* means "teacher, related to learning," and *didasko* means "studying".

The first philosophical ideas about the learning process are seen in the works of Eastern thinkers.

Abu Nasr al-Farabi (873-950). The following ideas can be traced in the main pedagogical concepts of Farabi. In particular, the objectives of education: the creation of an educated virtuous person. Subjects (sciences) of study: Arabic philology, history, the Koran, the traditions of the prophets (hadith), natural (philosophical) sciences: mathematics, medicine, astronomy, mechanics, metaphysics, logic, etc.



Principles, methods and forms of education according to Farabi : practical orientation of education, connection with life; continuity of scientific knowledge (scientific method of cognition); logic and consistency; scientific, visual, systematic (observation and experience). Methods and methods of reasoning: evidentiary, dialectical (i.e. discussions), sophistic (putting the opponent astray), rhetorical, poetic. Teaching methods:

experimental and visual, repetition exercises, induction and deduction, the method of abstractionism, etc. The functions of a teacher, according to the "Aristotle of the East", are similar to the functions of a wise head of state: to keep in memory everything that he sees and hears; have a penetrating and perspicacious mind, expressive speech, not only love doing science, but also transfer knowledge to their students; abstain from alcoholic drinks, love the truth, hate lies, cherish honor, be fair, etc.

Abu Rayhan Muhammad ibn Ahmad Beruni . (973- 1048(50)) He did not have any works devoted to the problems of education and training. But in his writings he paid attention to the issues of education. Training should be consistent, visual, purposeful and is given according to a certain system. Knowledge ennobles a person, and the transfer of one's knowledge to others brings true happiness.



He considered the process of acquiring knowledge to be a great work, requiring a lot of effort, time and patience. Didactic principles and methods : experiment; equipping students with scientific facts; scientific practice; experience and observation; clarity, consistency and systematic; activation and development of interest in learning; repetition and message; catechetical conversation; accessibility of learning (from close to remote ; from known to less known; from easy to difficult, etc.).

Abu Ali al Husain Abdullah Ibn al Hasan Ali Ibn Sino (980-1037)

Didactic principles according to Ibn Sino: do not immediately tie the child to the book ; normalized and feasible exercises, collective in combination with physical exercises; take into account the inclinations of the child, in learning to go from easy to difficult; visibility, accessibility, taking into account individual characteristics.



But for the first time the concept of "Didactics" was introduced by the famous German scientist Ratke, who considered didactics as the art of teaching Wolfgang Ratke (1571-1635) - German pedagogue - theorist, who had the greatest influence on the formation of Comenius' views.



Ratke hid his method from others, and when he communicated the basics of his didactics to others, he took an oath that they would not divulge the essence of his teaching.

The basis of Ratke's didactics was the requirement for the naturalness of learning "so that the subject itself is studied first, and then the rules related to it." Let everything be studied by induction and experiment. No rule, no system of instruction, can be admitted or recognized as correct until they have been examined and found to be true by experience.

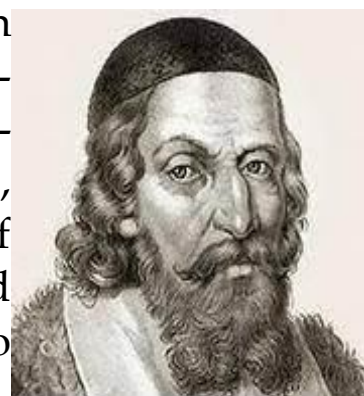
Principles of training according to Ratke "All without compulsion"

"To observe the uniformity of teaching in all subjects"
 "Must repeat the same thing over and over"

"Nothing should be learned by heart"

The interpretation of this category has changed in different periods:

John Amos Comenius (1592-1670), in his theoretical treatise "Great Didactics", expressed the idea that didactics is "the universal art of teaching everything to everyone", "the formation of morals in the direction of comprehensive morality " There is no need to teach a bird to fly, a fish to swim, It is also natural for a person to strive for education.



The naturalness of education is so great that only a good method is needed, and everything will go fine. Even poorly capable teachers will teach well according to a good method, be-

cause "each one will not so much extract the material and method of teaching from his own mind, but rather will either

drop by drop, or in whole streams pour ready-made education into the minds of young men, and moreover prepared and given to him by means

He created the "Golden Rule" of Didactics In everything that is possible, to provide with the senses: visible for perception by sight, audible by hearing, smells - by smell, subject to taste - by taste, accessible to touch - by touch. If any objects can be perceived by several senses at once, let them be seized by several senses at once.



Heinrich Pestalozzi (1746-1827)
 Unlike Comenius, Pestalozzi understood all learning not as a triumph of method, but as a matter of creativity of the student himself, all knowledge as the development of activity from within, as acts of amateur performance, self-development.

"All that you are, all that you want, all that you owe comes from yourself." Pestalozzi poses the question: "Should not my knowledge also come from myself?" - and the analysis of the foundations of education in the essay "How Gertrude teaches her children" answers in the affirmative. Man has the power to give his own reasoning and thoughts over instinct.

Three main elements of methodical teaching according to Pestalozzi

1. Finding elements, the simplest first provisions in each academic subject, from which all subsequent ones follow in a harmonious logical order.
2. Continuity of presentation while constantly moving forward.
3. The relative completeness of each exercise and their

integrity all taken together.

Thus, in the period of development of pedagogy in Europe that we have considered, the following points of view on didactics and its representations were put forward - the method:

1. The method is omnipotent (Ratke, Comenius).
2. The method is a psychological tool and must be substantiated psychological data (Pestalozzi).

I.F. Herbart (1776-1841), developing the theoretical foundations of didactics, understood it as an internal, holistic and consistent theory of "educational education", combining the process of teaching and learning ;

K.D. Ushinsky (1824-1870) put forward the problem of the need to establish links between the theory and practice of teaching, psychology and pedagogy based on the unity of the sensual and the rational in cognition :

D. Dewey (1859-1952) focused on the active role of the child in the learning process, the principle of practical activity based on personal experience and the formation of the ability for intellectual activity.

Didactics is a branch of pedagogy that develops the theory of education and learning.

To clarify the subject and categories of didactics, one should recall the concept of "pedagogical system", the same is a didactic system, the components of which reflect its main categories: goals, content of education, didactic processes, methods, means, forms of education, patterns and principles of education.

The concept of "didactic system" is important both in theoretical and practical terms. It allows you to analyze the process learning by elements and in the system of their interaction, to explore systematically, more fully and deeper the essence of education and learning. In addition, on its basis, it is possible to develop specific training systems, to design an educational process with certain characteristics. The subject of didactics is the laws and principles of education, its goals, the scientific foundations of the content of education, methods, forms, means of edu-

cation. There are private didactics, or subject methods. They explore learning in individual subjects or levels of education (methodology of primary education, didactics of higher education). General didactics constitutes the theoretical basis of particular didactics, based at the same time on the results of their research.

Thus, didactics involves the search for answers to the following questions:

Why teach ? - The goals of education related to the motivational and value orientations of the subjects of educational activity

What to teach? - Determination of the content of education, development of educational standards for curricula and methodological support for educational progress.

How to teach? - Selection of didactic principles, methods and forms of education that contribute to the effectiveness of pedagogical activity.

In this regard, the main categories of didactics are: the learning process, the principles of didactics, the content of training and education, the forms and methods of organizing educational activities: each of them is interconnected with others and is considered as a part, an element of an integral scientific and didactic system.

DIDACTICS

GOAL (why to learn)

PRINCIPLES ORGANIZATIONAL FORMS (why and how to teach) (where to teach)

TEACHING METHODS AND TOOLS (What to teach ?)

The tasks of didactics are to

- (1) describe and explain the learning process and the conditions for its implementation;
- (2) to develop a more perfect organization of the learning process, new learning systems, technologies.

3§ THE MAIN CATEGORIES OF DIDACTICS.

The main categories of didactics are: Teaching, training, tui-

tion, learning, education, knowledge, skills, abilities, as well as the goal, content, organization, form of learning, methods, means, results (products) of education. Recently, the status of the main didactic categories has been proposed to be assigned to the concepts of the didactic system and teaching technology. Let us briefly dwell on the main categories of didactics.

Teaching is an ordered activity of a teacher to achieve the goal of learning (educational tasks), - providing information, education, awareness and practical application of knowledge.

Training is a process (more precisely, a co -process), during which, on the basis of knowledge, exercise and acquired experience, new forms of behavior and activity arise, previously acquired ones change.

Education is an ordered interaction of a teacher with a student, aimed at achieving the goal. The educational (didactic) process contains the following main links of interaction:

Knowledge is a form of existence and systematization of the results of human cognitive activity (information included in the personality structure). Knowledge includes: facts, ideas, concepts, laws, patterns, ideas, theories. Characteristics of knowledge: knowledge can be: complete, superficial, accurate - the level of knowledge, truth, volume, understanding, consistency, strength, etc. up to 30 characteristics. There are three levels of knowledge: reproductive - for reproduction without significant changes: constructive - knowledge obtained during the restructuring of the 1st level (highlighting the main, generalization, comparison, choice) creative - knowledge acquired in the course of independent search work.

Skill is the level of knowledge to the extent that it can be applied in practice.

Abilities - mastering the ways (techniques, actions) of applying acquired knowledge in practice. Abilities - skills brought to automatism, a high degree of perfection.

Education is a means of developing and shaping a personality, which is not limited to mastering knowledge, developing

practical skills and ways of creative activity. The fact is that knowledge as an object of assimilation has three interrelated aspects: theoretical (facts, theoretical ideas and concepts), practical (skills and abilities of applying knowledge in various life situations) and ideological and moral (ideological and moral and aesthetic ideas contained in knowledge). With properly organized training, the student masters all three aspects of the knowledge being studied, i.e. in inseparable unity, the individual is enriched with scientific knowledge, the development of his intellectual abilities, creative abilities, the formation of his worldview and moral and aesthetic culture, which makes learning an important means of education.

In modern didactics, the term "education" is understood as a special sphere of social life, a unique system, a kind of socio-cultural phenomenon that contributes to the accumulation of knowledge, skills and intellectual development of a person. Education is the acquisition by students of scientific knowledge, practical skills and abilities, the development of their mental and creative abilities, as well as their worldview and moral and ethical culture, as a result of which they acquire a certain image and individual identity. The result is education - the quality of a person, which characterizes her ability to use in her cognitive and practical activities the products of material and spiritual labor of people, guided by social norms and spiritual values. The level of education reflects the range of products of spiritual and material labor, social norms and values that a person is able to use in their activities.

The goal (educational, upbringing) is what education is striving for, the future towards which its efforts are directed.

Content (training, education) - a system of scientific knowledge, practical skills, ways of working and thinking that students need to master in the learning process.

Organization - the ordering of didactic progress according to certain criteria, giving it the necessary form in order to best achieve the goal.

Form (from Latin "forma" - appearance, shell) is a way of existence of the educational process, a shell for its inner essence, logic and content. The form is primarily related to the number of trainees, the time and place of training, the order of its implementation, etc.

Method (from the Latin "metodos" - a way, a way) - a way to achieve (implement) the goals and objectives of training.

Means - subject support of educational process. The means are the voice (speech) of the teacher, his skills in a broad sense, textbooks, classroom equipment, etc. This concept is also used in other meanings, which we will consider below.

Learning outcomes are what learning comes to, the final consequences of the educational process, the degree of realization of the intended goal. The components of the learning product are: 1) knowledge, skills; 2) worldview of the individual; 3) outlook and erudition; 4) the qualities of the mind, the intellectual development of the individual (operations and methods of thinking, ways, forms, methods of cognitive activity) 5) the ability to learn, the need to acquire and replenish knowledge; 6) self-education skills; 7) activity; 8) working capacity (mental and physical) of the personality; 9) upbringing (moral, aesthetic, environmental polytechnic, etc.) 10) professional orientation and preparation for life, etc.

§ MODELS AND PRINCIPLES OF LEARNING

Information models of learning. In information models, the idea is realized that the main goal of learning is the acquisition of knowledge, skills and abilities in their subject content. Within the framework of this approach, normative requirements for their assimilation and criteria for evaluating the activities of both the teacher and the student are developed. At the same time, the assimilation of the content of training programs is usually understood as the memorization of a certain amount of information. The general result of the teaching is the acquisition of knowledge - the "baggage of knowledge". This implies that the

formation of the ability to apply the information received, to use it in work occurs as real actions are carried out. In other words, life itself teaches this.

Nevertheless, it has always been considered necessary to link studies with life, theory with practice, for which practical exercises are provided (workshops, exercises in solving problems on applying the theory being studied in various situations, etc.). However, in such classes it is possible only fragmentarily, with the help of individual examples, to show the fundamental possibility of using theoretical knowledge, there is not enough time for more.

In other words, the logic of learning requires the formation of the ability to apply knowledge, but this requirement is not realized: learning ends only with the acquisition of knowledge.

The main problem with such a learning algorithm for the student is the "loss of information" in the course of learning. Next, we will consider the reasons for this phenomenon so that a student in a learning situation built according to the type of information model can, if possible, help himself by making additional efforts.

The first reason is that when a teacher communicates knowledge to students and it is not always clear. Such a misunderstanding is psychologically quite justified, because abstract theoretical propositions that are not related to personal experience and practice are very difficult to comprehend, and sometimes even impossible. Since the communication of knowledge always goes ahead of any practice (even illustrations in the form of examples can sometimes be impossible to squeeze into the narrow framework of teaching time), this shortcoming is in principle insurmountable as long as such a system of education is maintained. Teachers take this into account and usually reassure students by saying that after passing the following topics, these gaps will disappear.

The second reason is the difficulty of remembering even understandable information. This is explained by the fact that the

communicated knowledge, before being compared with the real object reflected in theoretical constructions, can often be memorized only by mechanical memorization, since students still do not have ideas about the life realities corresponding to them at this moment.

The third reason is such a simple factor as forgetting. Much of what was understood and seemed to be remembered can be forgotten over time. Even partial forgetting leads to the loss of the logic of the processes, breaks the causes and effects, violates the integral relationship of once acquired knowledge. Forgetting is a natural process. Of the amount of information fixed in memory, sooner or later a significant part is necessarily lost "in its nooks and crannies", sometimes irretrievably. And the less was the connection of the acquired knowledge with the practice known to man, the earlier this happens.

Traditional pedagogy recommends fighting forgetting through repetition ("repetition is the mother of learning"), but in practice repetition turns into cramming, completely unacceptable for adults, and is categorically rejected by them. Any person, in order not to forget important information, prefers to write it down, and does not engage in thoughtless repetition, which naturally does not enter his mind as an important, useful thing.

The simplest and most understandable way to combat forgetting is the practical application of knowledge. But the trouble is that in the structure of the educational process corresponding to the information model, there is neither space nor time left for the practical development of the acquired scientific knowledge.

The fourth reason for the inability of students to use theoretical knowledge in practice is that part of this knowledge, even firmly imprinted in memory, often turns out to be completely inapplicable, so far they are from real practice. Meanwhile, those precious hours, days and weeks that could be useful for obtaining really useful information were spent on their acquisition. The presence of such "extra" knowledge (excessive information) in training courses is usually explained by the need to increase

the general erudition of trainees, but in reality this explanation is not justified. Knowledge that is given "just in case" overloads memory. They create the illusion of learning, distance it from practice.

So, already in the course of the educational process itself, a very significant part of the knowledge communicated to students is lost. Even more is forgotten after training, if such knowledge is not immediately reinforced in the form of practical application.

This happens for one reason that is common to the entire traditional system of education - training in actions is replaced by training in knowledge, and the process of acquiring knowledge is separated from the process of applying it. Thus, part of the knowledge communicated in advance is not brought to practice and, in principle, cannot be applied in practice. Therefore, to give a person knowledge does not mean to teach him to competently act in accordance with this knowledge, to actually be guided by it in practical activities.

The task of teaching the practical use of theoretical knowledge is a special problem that goes beyond the actual process of traditional learning, and therefore cannot be solved on its basis.

The question arises: how to make sure that all the knowledge communicated is useful and can be used in practice, so that students immediately learn to apply it in practice? To answer this question, let's return to the diagram and analyze the functions of each of the elements of the structure of the educational process indicated on it: "the communication of knowledge - their memorization - the end result of learning - the baggage of knowledge."

All these elements have one common function - to provide students with a variety of knowledge that serves as guidelines for future medical practice. It means that, having imprinted this knowledge in the memory, a person will be able, as needed, to extract the necessary from the storeroom of memory in much the

same way as a surgical nurse gives the surgeon tools in time during an operation.

The activity of a student within the framework of the information model is reduced to the implementation of the technology of mastering knowledge, which consists in receiving, storing, reproducing and processing scientific information. The quality of assimilation is determined by three indicators:

- reproduction of knowledge
- their application according to the model,
- their use in unusual situations.

The cognitive activity of students is considered as a movement from ignorance to knowledge, from inability to ability. Its criteria for each student are taken from the focus on the "average student". Normative requirements for the mandatory minimum of knowledge and skills do not take into account the individual experience of the student, his personal characteristics, the depth of mastering the subject content. Often this leads to alienation of the student from the learning process, reduces its effectiveness, stops it on the path of knowledge.

Operational models. Understanding these problems, teachers and psychologists-researchers have long been wondering how to provide a person with a more effective orientation in future activities. The path to solving this complex problem in the early 50s. 20th century was designated by the famous domestic psychologist P.Y. Galperin, the author of the theory of the gradual formation of mental actions and concepts. A psychological theory arose, which formed the basis for the improvement in our country of the entire system of education in general and the system of vocational training in particular. It became possible to create new, more effective methods that significantly accelerate the process of developing practical skills, ensuring rapid progress from apprenticeship to professionalism. So, along with the use of information models, operational models of learning arose.

Teacher cannot, for various reasons, fulfill the function of a complete orientation of the student in future activities, so it is

necessary to give him visible (visual) guidelines sufficient for the correct performance of actions, based on which a person who is just starting to learn could immediately, without receiving any preliminary knowledge (and their rote memorization), act unmistakably in practical terms.

Such landmarks have been called orienting basis of action (OBA) schemes. The OBA schemes in relation to diagnosis and treatment contain all the information about the order and sequence of the specified actions and operations. They are designed to fully orient the student in the activity being mastered.

Psychological theory proceeds from the understanding of any action - mental, speech, physical (motor), perceptual (the activity of the sense organs: vision, hearing, smell, etc.) - as a unity of interrelated and interdependent parts: orienting, executive and control appraisal. Without a clear understanding of what and how to do, it is impossible to correctly evaluate the result of each action, predict further actions and continue activities. It is OBA schemes that make the orienting part of the action unmistakable, because when using them, one does not need to remember what, how and in what sequence one should do.

The OBA scheme is a structural and logical sequence of practical actions. According to the form of presentation of the material, it includes: diagrams, tables, graphs, training cards, instructions, a number of sequential questions, auxiliary objects - models, devices that indicate the correct guidelines for actions (motor, perceptual, mental, speech). The term "scheme" has a conditional and generalized character. In each specific case, the content of the concept of "OBA scheme" can be implemented in various methodological (guiding) means.

Due to the use of the OBA scheme, errors in the implementation of previously unfamiliar actions are eliminated, so the so-called false skills are not formed, which take the lion's share of study time to overcome. Skills and abilities, both motor and mental, speech, perceptual (visual, auditory, etc.), are formed much faster and more efficiently if there is no threat to make a

mistake, there is no fear of doing something wrong if time is not spent on correction mistakes, false skills and habits, which sometimes is tantamount to retraining. This mechanism hides the secret of reducing training time, and most importantly, improving its quality.

The teaching methodology is as follows:

the student reads the proposed problem, the solution of which he cannot know (teaching the subject is just beginning); then he, following the OBA scheme and relying on it, performs the necessary actions in accordance with the conditions of the problem;

if he strictly followed the instructions of the scheme, if necessary, turning to the teacher for advice, then after some time the problem will be solved.

The advantage of a particular methodology is that, once drawn up, the OBA scheme can be used by any users (teachers and students), be effective not only for learning, but also for self-learning.

Thus, the research of psychologists has led to the conclusion that teaching is necessary not in order to give the sum of knowledge, but in order to teach how to act. Action is nothing more than the application of knowledge in practice. According to the information model of learning, it is formed after the acquisition of knowledge, most often outside the learning process itself, and in the method under consideration, the ability to act is formed not after, but in the process of acquiring knowledge, i.e. knowledge is acquired in the course of their practical application.

Operational learning models are being introduced into teaching practice by most clinical departments of medical universities. A lot of experience has been accumulated in constructing OBA schemes in accordance with the professional tasks of a doctor. The credit for this belongs to the students of P.Ya. Galperin (in particular, G.I. Lerner).

For the implementation of operational learning models,

pedagogical control, carried out through a system of logical standards (situational tasks), and self-control in the course of actions performed are of great importance.

However, even in operational learning models, no special attention is paid to taking into account the student's subjective experience - the stock of knowledge, worldly ideas, personal orientations, which are significant for the subject, but not always essential from the standpoint of the logic of knowledge. It was noted that the use of OBA schemes, their inherent algorithms and prescriptions in teaching at clinical departments sometimes reduces the cognitive activity and independence of especially strong students. This has led to criticism of this approach.

The main effect of the introduction of an operational- activity approach in medical education from the point of view of pedagogy is the clarity of the formulation of the requirements for a medical specialist in the language of professional activity, which ensures that students are prepared to solve problems and perform the duties of a doctor. However, the most important components of this approach - normativity (compliance with the standard, given norms), manageability and manufacturability, focus on the average student - cannot be unambiguously assessed.

Personally oriented approach. The main goal of a student-centered approach in education is to promote the student's personal growth while maintaining all the importance of preparing for professional activity. The defining value of this approach is the personality and dignity of everyone, the motivation for creativity, the focus on the individuality of the processes of self-knowledge and self-expression, on the moral aspects of education. His pedagogical strategy is a strategy of cooperation, assistance based on understanding the difficulties of students entering new and unknown knowledge and affairs, on supporting their own aspirations and initiatives.

The most important condition for successful learning in this approach is meaningfulness and understanding of the signifi-

cance for students of the content and methods of activity. The "trigger" of the professional development of a personality is the process of meaning formation, based on the student's ability to set goals and reflect, uniting the values and means of professional activity.

The main source of resources for the pedagogical process is the activity of the students themselves, that is, the activity of students. The teacher is a facilitator, he creates psychological and pedagogical conditions for self-development, for the meaningful development of the basics of professional activity and the development of the professional consciousness of future doctors.

The criteria for evaluating the effectiveness of training are indicators of personal growth of students. They manifest themselves in a conscious, mature attitude to learning not as a formal preparation for a future "real" life, but as a living situation "here and now", which is extremely important for the formation of personality and one's own professional position. Formal assessment methods (for example, tests) turn into only a tool for identifying the degree of assimilation of the necessary information and knowledge. The emphasis is on solving real medical or simulated situations (joint examination of patients and clinical case studies), as close as possible to professional life (solving specific clinical and psychological problems).

The style of communication and interaction between the teacher and the student, characteristic of the student-centered approach, is based on the following principles:

- unconditional acceptance of a communication partner;
- rejection of negative assessments of the progress and development of the student, attention to the productivity of trial and error;
- equality and sincerity in interaction;
- openness of communication, the possibility of mutual assessment of all participants in the educational process;
- mutual understanding and empathy (empathy); co - creation and collaboration.

In this regard, communication at the level of interpersonal dialogue in the triad "doctor-teacher - patient - student - future doctor" is recognized as productive.

Currently, a person-centered approach in combination with operational- activity models is widely used to improve the quality of training of future doctors at the preclinical and clinical stages of medical education. Its particular relevance is emphasized by the changes in social and professional requirements associated with the inclusion of a doctor in continuing professional education.

The system of higher medical education uses various types of training models and their combinations. How teaching practice develops in a particular university depends on many conditions. It is important for us to note the presence of an innovative movement that has been characteristic of the last 10-15 years. Under his influence, not only teaching methods are gradually changing, but often the systems of training future professionals.

Principles of organization of the pedagogical process. In the practice of organizing the pedagogical process, we are guided by certain principles that have stood the test of both time and experience. Let's consider them in the most generalized form.

Dialogization principle reflects the idea of unlimited possibilities of a person on the way to self-improvement in the course of communication with other people. The pedagogical process includes two activities: the activity of the student - teaching and the activity of the teacher - teaching. Their interaction in a modern university should be built as equal cooperation. However, it is clear that initially the situation of the meeting between the teacher and the student is always "unequal". In the educational process of higher education, there should be a transformation of the leading position of the teacher and the subordinate position of the student into the position of equal accomplices. Such a transformation has its own stages, at which the teacher creates conditions for greater independence of students, the formation of their ability to self-government and its strengthening. In a

learning situation, a teacher is not only an intermediary between an array of culture, ethics, knowledge and a student. Its most important role is to update and stimulate students' aspirations for general and professional development, to create conditions for their self-improvement. We must not forget that only in such a dialogue are conditions formed for personal growth and creative self - development of both the student and the teacher.

The principle of problematization reveals the creative nature of the entire preparation of a medical student, both its content and methods. As you know, the process of creativity includes the discovery of a new (in the educational process - " re-discovery "): objects, knowledge, problems, methods of diagnosis and treatment.

In a medical school, the content of training is most often presented as a search for ways and means of solving problems, and the learning process is presented as focusing problems and acquiring skills to solve them. The more successfully the principle of problematization is implemented at the preclinical stage, the more clearly it is carried out in clinical departments, when all the content and teaching methods are aimed at finding ways and means of solving problems.

The principle of personalization provides for overcoming the shortcomings of the traditional role-playing pedagogical interaction, when the educational process is based on the relationship of individuals, and not role participants. Thanks to this, their additional functions, resources and capabilities are revealed: personal experience is updated, aspirations, actions and deeds that acquire an individual, and not just normative, character are taken into account.

The principle of individualization presupposes that education is focused not only on the so-called "average" student, but also on the "strong" and "weak" ones, taking into account all their diverse inclinations and capabilities. Its implementation is achieved as a result of pedagogical observations, psychodiagnostics, knowledge of the abilities and inclinations of students,

as well as an attitude towards their development.

The principle of the deontological orientation of specialist training reflects the ethical component of the doctor's professional activity and provides for both the moral aspect - the application of the principles of morality in the specific activity of healing, and the problems of interpersonal relations between doctors and those who are not specialists in the field of medicine, and compliance with professional standards. In order to avoid possible difficulties in relations with patients and their relatives. The deontological education of medical students is a unique, extremely complex problem associated with the development of a person's spiritual culture. We will look at it in more detail in chapter 9 of our manual.

§ FORMATION OF PROFESSIONAL ACTIONS OF A DOCTOR

(diagnosis and treatment)

Objectives and content of training of a doctor

In order to consciously and effectively participate in the educational process, students need to have knowledge about its most common models and principles, about the conditions, goals and methods of forming the actions of a doctor, methods and forms of training, about methods of pedagogical control and self-control. Their own educational experience will serve as the basis for them to move on to mastering their professional activities and for further continuous education.

In medical education, we find different approaches to the organization of student training - informational, operational - activity and personality - oriented. Each of them has its own advantages and disadvantages, and therefore, at different stages of education (preclinical, clinical), the student has the opportunity to find and use the best, take into account limitations, and discover additional resources of a particular approach. The educational process is aimed at achieving the learning goals, which are formulated in the qualification characteristics of a specialist and

consist in mastering the corresponding learning content.

The content of the educational program is determined by the State Educational Standard of Higher Professional Education. For the training of doctors, state educational standards have been developed in the following specialties:

- 040400 "Dentistry";
- 040100 "Medicine";
- 040200 Pediatrics;
- 040300 "Medical and preventive business".

They formulate requirements for the mandatory minimum content and level of training of graduates of medical universities. In the section of the State Educational Standard "Requirements for the mandatory minimum content of the main educational program", the following disciplines are distinguished: humanitarian, socio-economic, mathematical, natural science, biomedical, professional, disciplines and specialties.

The logic of preparing a student in a medical university is dictated by the qualification characteristics of a graduate doctor, which sets out the requirements of society for this specialist. They become the ultimate goal of learning.

The movement towards the final goals - the achievement of intermediate goals - is determined by the contribution of each discipline to the final result. The order of studying disciplines at the preclinical and clinical stages corresponds to the logic of the development of clinical thinking: from fundamental knowledge, laws and patterns that lay the foundations of clinical thinking, to special disciplines, upon mastering which, the formation of the ability to solve professional clinical problems is completed on the basis of generalized knowledge, methods and techniques activities.

The main methods in medical education,

The modernization of educational activities significantly affects the effectiveness of training, as it allows you to rely on the main components of orientation in the real structure of the doctor's actions (for the student - during the supervision of pa-

tients): analysis of the initial situation, stages, tools and means, criteria and methods of self-control.

In medical education, the main method of teaching has traditionally been the joint (and then independent) "management" of the patient by the doctor-teacher and the student. This real process included all stages of examination and diagnosis, preparation and implementation of a treatment plan, subsequent discussion of the dynamics of the patient's condition and evaluation of treatment results. It involved the transfer of healing experience from one specialist to another and the appropriation of professional values, knowledge, skills and even individual techniques, behavior and communication style with patients and colleagues by the trainees .

Learning from a mentor, teacher, master is one of the most important achievements of medical education. However, this method of transferring experience has certain limitations. Training next to a professional leads to assimilation of the "visible" part of the experience and to a dangerous underestimation of the "invisible", hidden from observation, carried out as if automatically or on the basis of an intuitive feeling already established by the master. The distance from "Watch me do it" to "Do it like me" in learning is huge. This path was quite typical for learning by trial and error, with all its characteristic shortcomings: empirical generalizations of the most common cases in practice, an increase in training time, difficulties and errors in abnormal and atypical situations. Many years passed before the novice doctor developed his own style of action, gained his own experience (and did not repeat or copy, even if very valuable, but someone else's). Among doctors there is a tragic aphorism "Every doctor has his own cemetery", reflecting the pain and price that a professional pays for gaining his experience.

The achievements of pedagogical psychology , a science that studies the patterns of development and changes in a person in the learning process and the conditions that make learning successful, have made it possible to form a new look at voca-

tional education and a different approach to the process of becoming a professional.

In higher medical education, for the development of clinical thinking and professional skills, methods created on the basis of the theory of the gradual formation of mental actions and concepts by P. Ya. Galperin began to be used. Its leading ideas are surprisingly consonant with the whole logic of the formation of medical education in Russia. (Already from the middle of the 19th century, three stages were included in the clinical training of doctors: propaedeutic , faculty and hospital, which students take in the appropriate type of clinics of therapeutic and surgical profiles.)

Modern medical education is focused on the active work of the student himself in solving professional problems (real or simulated). According to this approach, theoretical knowledge is assimilated simultaneously with the practical development of professional norms and methods of activity, and not separately and in advance. This theory provides for the practice of training a specialist on the basis of mastering specific professional actions (diagnosis, treatment, prevention, rehabilitation) and conceptual knowledge and skills (professional thinking, communication methods, manual clinical skills). At the same time, conceptual knowledge becomes “providing”, a condition and a guarantee for the exact implementation of practical actions.

To implement this approach, psychological models of activity are created, thanks to which it becomes clear to students how, in what sequence and why certain operations should be performed in order to correctly carry out all activities.

Such models are developed on the basis of a psychological analysis of the activity being mastered. Such an analysis makes it possible to understand the objective logic of the activity: what is its goal, what final result should this goal be embodied in, and thanks to what specific actions is it achieved in practice; and the subjective (psychological) component of this logic, in particular , why mistakes are made that are typical for beginners. Then the

structuring of activity is carried out - its division into successive actions and operations, the allocation of indicative, executive and control parts in them; identification of typical mistakes and difficulties in the process of work.

The activity structure created in this way represents a clear picture of everything: what is behind what, with the help of what and for what it is performed. Such a refined structure makes it possible to draw up a detailed *indicative basis for the action being formed*, to indicate specific guidelines that the student can be guided by, mastering a new activity for him. These guidelines can be:

- the sequence of stages of action (what for what?);
- used tools and means (with the help of what?);
- Criteria and methods of self-control (what is it for?);
- assessment of completed actions (what result is achieved?).

A clear description of the indicative basis of the action ensures the correct execution of the executive part.

Thus, in the educational process, the model of the activity being mastered is represented by two interrelated parts: the first of them is the scheme of the indicative basis of the action (training map), i.e. a system of consistent instructions on what, when and how to do, which reflects the logic and technology of the process; the second part is educational practical tasks that model the process of activity itself, covering all the options encountered in practice (the actual material for tasks corresponding to the logic of professional activity, which is the same in different situations, can be selected from real practice or modeled).

The orienting means used in training should provide the trainee with the error-free execution of a previously unfamiliar action from the first time. To do this, the schemes must meet certain requirements.

For the study of each topic, its own orientation scheme is drawn up.

It should take into account all the signs of concepts and

their manifestations in the clinical situation, all the conditions that affect the performance of the action.

The logic of the analysis of the clinical situation should be presented in the form of a clear structure in order to exclude the choice of the wrong course of action for the student. This is achieved by a system of questions posed, which are also formulated taking into account certain requirements:

- a) be understandable to the student;
- b) be short and unambiguous;
- c) provide a clear and unambiguous answer;
- d) to contain the basic concepts in accordance with scientific, medical terminology.

Each question of the scheme, reflecting the logic and meaning of the mastered action, must clearly orient the performer in the sequence of operations performed. The chain of such questions, the clarity of their formulations direct the trainee's thought, gradually leading him to a solution (the emphasis is not on mechanical memory and recalling the correct answer, but on reasoning and the search for a solution and its justification).

The system of educational tasks is a kind of simulator, thanks to which the student learns to perform actions (activity).

When forming new actions (and not just new knowledge), it is important to learn them in a real practical situation or on models that are adequate to it. Therefore, the system of educational tasks covers all possible options encountered in the activities of a doctor, and contains models of various practical situations that he may encounter often, and sometimes, on the contrary, quite rarely. The trainee must acquire the ability to act in all cases. This is precisely the need to address the psychological modeling of activity.

Professional skills and knowledge, as well as knowledge, are not transferred by the teacher to the student "from hand to hand". They are formed in the independent error-free activity of the student, which is organized by the teacher. The main feature of such training is that the student acts (solves problems) based

on orienting means - OBA schemes. The task of the teacher is to clearly organize and adequately manage the independent activities of students: set tasks, correct the course of their solution on the basis of OBA schemes, record and evaluate the results of the students' efforts. To do this, he deliberately abandons the usual position of "giving knowledge".

The originality of the methodology requires that at the beginning of training, the teacher familiarizes students with the order of actions in the classroom, i.e. with the procedural side of educational activity. It is very important for both the teacher and the student to overcome the "schoolboy" attitudes, according to which the "whole theory" is first presented, and then the examples show how it is implemented in life. Thanks to this technique, it becomes motivating to understand that only independent actions to solve professional problems lead to an understanding of "theory". And therefore, the role of the teacher is not to impose educational material, but to provide the student with the opportunity to successfully learn on his own, to create appropriate favorable conditions for this - the development of educational and methodological materials, orientation schemes, the choice of tasks that awaken activity and interest, the preparation of adequate questions and assignments to monitor learning outcomes.

In order for a student to acquire motivational readiness for self-learning, a general orientation in the features of learning according to the method of gradual formation of mental actions is necessary.

The task of students is to study independently in the presence of a teacher - mentor and consultant. First of all, this requires readiness in terms of motivation - an understanding of one's goals and values: "I want to learn this (for what or for what)". No less important is the comprehension of intellectual and cognitive aspirations - the acquisition of conceptual knowledge, norms and methods of activity: "I can learn (I know what exactly and how)". The coordinated acceptance by the

teacher and the student of educational tasks and attitudes opens up a wide space for joint activities as a condition for the implementation of a student-centered approach.

In situations related to the provision of real assistance to the patient, the role of the teacher is to create conditions for the trainee's reflection - reflection, analysis of upcoming and already performed actions, their justification, assessment of their correctness or erroneousness in terms of the requirements dictated by any specific situation (clinical , deontological , social). This is served by the so-called target pauses, allocated at those stages when it is necessary to analyze the changing clinical picture, compare your actions with the professional norm, and prevent a possible complication of the situation. As a speech stage - pronunciation - discussions of clinical cases are used (similar to medical conferences and analysis of records in case histories).

The main goal setting for the student is a thoughtful, interested approach to all his actions, and not the desire to "know everything and be able to do everything."

With an obvious difference between training (model) and real situations, they are united by one thing: if the future doctor seeks to act professionally, then he must be able to reason and think correctly in accordance with the logic of norms and methods of activity. Practical or modeling practice tasks and exercises, solved by students using orienting schemes that exclude errors, direct their mental actions in the right direction, lead to mastering the general method of purposeful analysis of the conditions of the situation (what is given and what needs to be found) and , ultimately, to the development of this activities.

However, it should be noted that ignoring the fundamental differences between practical and modeling tasks is unacceptable, because meeting and working with real problems of patients teaches students to accept and cope with the uncertainty of the situation, to be critical of their experience, and to apply professional skills creatively. Working with specific real problems is a special kind of joint activity of students and teachers, which con-

tains opportunities for creating a creative, developing atmosphere.

Successful professional practice in the clinic (the ability to work with patients problems in real conditions and in contact with other departments based on an interdisciplinary approach) can be carried out through reflective design and systematic construction of a learning situation. At the same time, it is necessary to take into account the specifics of training at each of the clinical departments, during which certain difficulties may arise:

- - when using orientation schemes in conditions of real care, it is impossible for the patient to act according to the scheme (recently, the functions of such schemes have been performed by the “case history schemes” developed by the teachers of the departments, which formulate the sequence of steps in the diagnosis, treatment and evaluation of its results);

- - when solving all kinds of problematic tasks that do not have an unambiguous (right or wrong) answer and involve uncertainty, the criterion for an adequate choice is the need to help the patient, and not the requirements of the learning process itself;

- - the development of a system of professional relations and values, interpersonal communication skills, which are formed through the organization of interaction between people in joint activities, occurs in a different logic than the assimilation of knowledge and actions.

The process of education and its results

Education is a process of purposeful and systematic influence on human development. Along with training, the category of education is one of the main ones in pedagogy.

Allocate:

education in a broad social sense, including in it the impact of cash on the part of society as a whole, i.e. identifying upbringing with socialization; upbringing in the pedagogical sense as a kind of pedagogical activity that exists along with training, specifically aimed at shaping personality traits: beliefs, abilities,

skills, etc.;

education, interpreted even more locally, as a solution to a specific educational task, for example: mental education, moral, aesthetic, etc.

Factors of education - a concept that has been established in modern pedagogy, according to which the process of education is not only the direct impact of the educator on the pupil, but also the interaction of various factors: individuals, specific people, pupils; microgroups, labor and educational teams; indirectly various social institutions.

Readiness and ability for self-education is recognized as the most important result of education.

Skill - the ability to perform any action according to certain rules and with good quality. Moreover, these actions have not yet reached the level of automatism, when skills turn into skills. Skill is the ability to perform an automatically performed action that does not require conscious control and special volitional efforts to perform it.

Persuasion is:

the technique of education, which consists in the effective transmission of a message, the point of view of one person to another;

a conscious need of the individual, which encourages him to act in accordance with his value orientations;

a set of beliefs in the form of philosophical, religious, ethical views that form a person's worldview.

The basis of belief is knowledge, but it does not automatically turn into belief. Their formation requires the unity of knowledge and a special attitude towards it, as something that indisputably reflects reality and should determine behavior. Belief is related to the feeling of knowledge. Beliefs make human behavior consistent, logical, purposeful.

Behavior is a set of real actions, external manifestations of the vital activity of a living being, including a person. Human behavior is usually assessed in terms of its compliance with gen-

erally accepted rules and norms as satisfactory, unsatisfactory, exemplary. Human behavior acts as an external expression of his inner world, the entire system of his life attitudes, values, ideals. The task of a teacher, leader is to correct undesirable behavior, taking into account the peculiarities of the formation of the inner world of a particular person, his individual traits.

The method of education is a system of interrelated actions of the educator and the educated, ensuring the assimilation of the content of education. The method of education is characterized by three features: the specific content of educational activities; a certain way of its assimilation; a specific form of interaction between participants in the educational process. Each method expresses the originality of these features, their combination ensures the achievement of all the goals and objectives of education.

Unlike teaching methods, educational methods contribute not so much to the assimilation of knowledge, but to the acquisition of experience in using knowledge already acquired in the learning process, the formation of appropriate skills, habits, behaviors, and value orientations on their basis.

The choice of the most effective methods of education is determined by the content of education, the characteristics of the pupils, the abilities and capabilities of the educator.

The system of education is an integral complex formed by a combination of means and factors of education, which includes the goals of education, its content, methods. There are two main systems of education: humane and authoritarian. The settings of the humane system of education are the formation of the creative abilities of the individual, his critical attitude towards himself and others. The authoritarian system of education is focused on the suppression of creative abilities, ensuring blind obedience of people to authorities. The humanistic education system is a product of democratic regimes that affirm the ideals of the priority of the individual over society, strengthening its rights and freedoms. The authoritarian education system is a product of au-

thoritarian regimes that affirm the ideal of the priority of society, the state over the individual, the restriction of his rights and freedoms.

§ THE ESSENCE OF THE EDUCATIONAL PROCESS

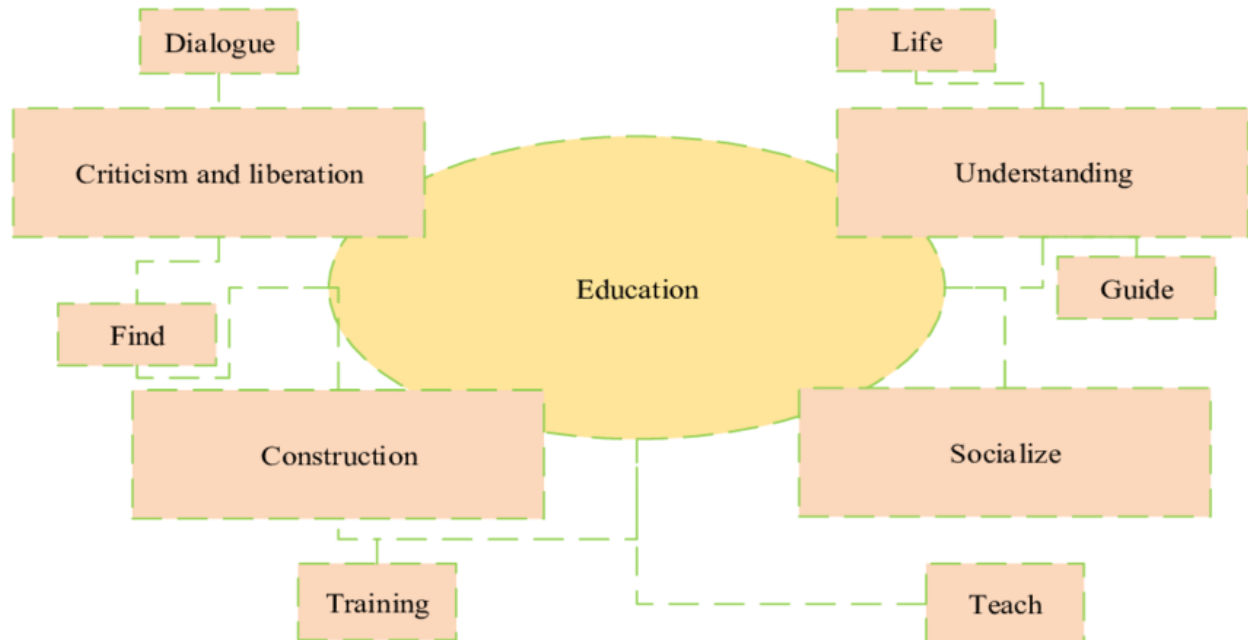
Education is a part of the educational process that exists along with training. At the same time, education is present in one way or another in all forms of social relations: in everyday life, in the family, at work, being an important part of their functioning.

In the broadest sense, education, as psychological science interprets it, is a qualitative transformation of the accumulated social experience that exists outside the personality into the form of personal, individual experience, into personal beliefs and behavior, its internalization, i.e. transfer to the inner psychic plane of the personality. Moreover, this process can be both organized and spontaneous.

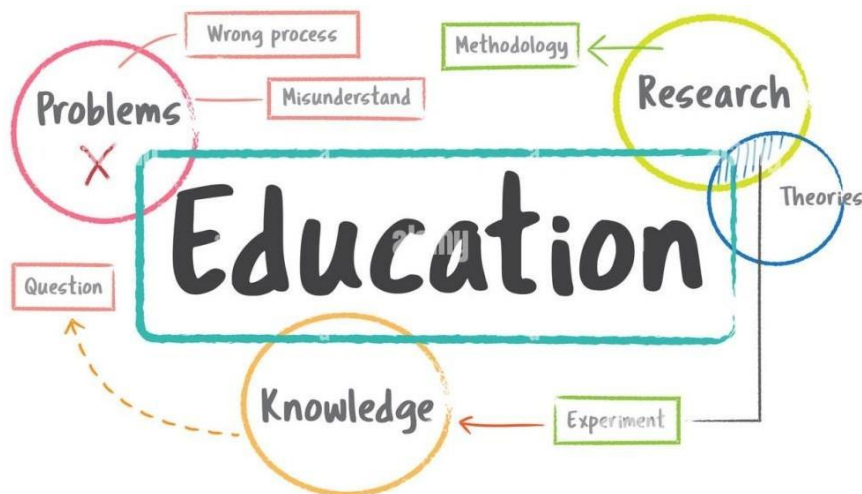
From the point of view of pedagogical science, education is a special, purposeful organization of interaction between a teacher and a pupil with the active work of not only the educator, but also the educatee in mastering social experience and values. In domestic pedagogy, a more significant role in the upbringing of personal participation, the activities of the educator, is especially emphasized than in the learning process.

Education is precisely the process of interaction between the mentor and the pupil, and not the one-sided influence of the teacher, consultant, coach, leader. Therefore, educational activity is constantly characterized by the terms "interaction", "cooperation", "social, pedagogical situation of personality development". The educational process is multifactorial. This means that the formation of personality is influenced by both factors of the macro environment (the state, the media, the Internet) and the micro environment (family, study group, production team), as well as the student's own position. In this process, there are multidirectional influences, both positive and negative, which are

very difficult to manage. For example, the processes of self- education are purely personal, individual in nature and little controlled from the outside.



Educational process



Education is a continuous, long-term process. Its results do not directly follow the educational impact, but are of a delayed nature. Since these results are the result not only of external influences, but also of one's own choice, the will of the educate, they are difficult to predict.

The educational process is implemented as a complex sys-

tem of activities, which includes the following elements:

- definition of goals and objectives;
- development of the content of education, its main directions; application of effective methods;
- formulation of principles, leading guidelines governing all elements of the education system.

§ METHODS OF ORGANIZING THE EDUCATIONAL PROCESS

The methods of education are understood as the methods of activity that differ in originality and are used in the educational process to achieve its goals. In addition to the term "methods", pedagogical literature also uses similar concepts of methods, techniques, forms of education. However, since there is no clear distinction between these categories, they will be used here as unambiguous.

At the same time, it should be borne in mind that the category of methods is one of the main ones in the theory of education and that its clear understanding is an important condition for increasing the effectiveness of all educational activities.

The originality of individual methods, techniques is primarily due to the nature of those qualities of the student, to the improvement of which they are aimed. Therefore, the most acceptable type of classification, i.e. division into types, numerous methods of education is their three-term classification into:

- methods of formation of certain qualities of consciousness, thoughts and feelings, which include, for example, methods of persuasion, discussion, etc.;
- methods of organizing practical activities, accumulating behavioral experience, primarily in the form of conducting various kinds of exercises, creating educational situations;
- methods of stimulation, activation of attitudes of consciousness and forms of behavior with the help of such tech-

niques as encouragement or punishment.

It is easy to see that the first of these groups stands out taking into account the fact that it is consciousness that is the most important prerequisite for human behavior. The second group of methods stands out due to the fact that objective-practical activity is just as necessary a condition for human existence as consciousness, and also due to the fact that it is practice that checks and consolidates the results of the activity of consciousness. Finally, the third group of methods is necessary because any attitudes of consciousness or habits of behavior are weakened or even lost if they are not stimulated morally and materially.

The choice preference of certain methods of education one or another of their combinations depend on the specific pedagogical situation. When making this choice, it is important to consider the following circumstances:

a specific direction of education, the need for which is dictated by the current situation: for example, mental education involves the use of methods of the first of these groups, and labor education - the use of methods of the second group;

character and level of development of pupils. It is clear that it is impossible to apply the same methods of education for senior and junior classes, for students and graduate students:

the level of maturity of specific educational groups, labor collectives in which the educational process is carried out: as the degree of formation of the positive qualities of the team, its maturity, the methods of educational activity should change accordingly, flexibly, for example, the ratio between the methods of punishment and encouragement in favor of the latter;

personal, individual characteristics of pupils: it is impossible to apply the same educational methods for old and young, for people belonging to different psychological types, temperaments, etc.

Therefore, an experienced teacher, leader must master the entire set of educational techniques, find such combinations of them that are most appropriate for a particular situation, re-

member that a template is strongly contraindicated in this matter.

To achieve this, you need to have a good understanding of the essence of the main methods of educational influence. Let's consider the most important of them.

Persuasion is one of the methods of the first group aimed at the formation of consciousness. The use of this method is the initial prerequisite for the next stage of the educational process - the formation of proper behavior. It is beliefs, stable knowledge that determine the actions of people.

This method is addressed to the consciousness of the individual, to her feelings and mind, to her inner spiritual world. The fundamental basis of this spiritual world, according to the traditions of Russian self-consciousness, is a clear understanding of the meaning of our own life, which consists in the optimal use of those abilities and talents that we have received from nature. And no matter how difficult this task may sometimes be, due to the complexity of the specific social conditions in which each of us often finds ourselves, everything else depends on the nature of its solution: both our relationships with other people (relatives and strangers) and our labor success, and our position in society.

Therefore, when implementing the method of persuasion, first of all, attention should be paid to the problem of self-education, self-improvement, and on this basis, consider the problems of relationships with other people, issues of communication, morality, etc.

The main tools of the method of persuasion are verbal (word, message and information). It can be a lecture, a story, especially in the humanities.

The combination of informativeness with emotionality is very important here, which greatly increases the persuasiveness of communication.

Monologue forms should be combined with dialogical ones: conversations, debates, which significantly increase the

emotional and intellectual activity of the trainees. Of course, a dispute, a conversation must be organized and prepared: a problem must be defined in advance, a plan for its discussion adopted, and rules established. The role of the educator here is to help students discipline their thoughts, adhere to logic, and argue their position.

But verbal methods, for all their significance, must be supplemented by the power of example, which has a special power of persuasion. "Long is the path of instruction," said Seneca, "short is the path of example."

A successful example concretizes a general, abstract problem, activates the consciousness of pupils. The action of this technique is based on the sense of imitation inherent in people. A role model can serve not only living people, leaders, educators, parents, but also literary characters, historical figures. The standards formed by the media and art also play an important role. It should be borne in mind that imitation is not only a simple repetition of patterns it tends to develop into a creative activity of the individual, which is already manifested in the choice of patterns. It is therefore important to surround pupils with positive role models. Although it should be borne in mind that a negative example given in time and to the place, showing the negative consequences of certain actions, helps to keep the pupil from doing the wrong thing.

Of course the most effective personal example of the educator, his own convictions, business qualities, the unity of words and deeds, his fair attitude towards his pupils.

For all the importance of convictions, clear thoughts and feelings, they form only the starting point of educational activity. Stopping at this stage, education does not achieve its ultimate goals, which are to form the required

behavior, to combine beliefs with specific deeds. The organization of certain behavior is the core of the entire educational process.

The universal method of forming the necessary behavioral

skills is the method of exercises.

Exercise is the repeated repetition and improvement of the methods of action that are the basis of behavior.

Exercises in education differ from exercises in teaching, where they are most closely linked with the acquisition of knowledge. In the process of education, they are aimed at developing skills and habits, at developing positive behavioral habits, bringing them to automatism. Endurance, self-control, discipline, organization, communication culture - these are just some of the qualities that are based on the habits formed by military nutrition. The more complex the quality, the more exercises you need to do to develop a habit.

Therefore, in order to develop certain moral, volitional and professional qualities of a person, a systematic approach is needed when implementing the method of exercises based on the principles of consistency, regularity, and regularity. A teacher, leader, coach must clearly plan the volume and sequence of loads, while following the recommendations of K.D. Ushinsky:

“Our will, like muscles, grows stronger only from gradually increasing activity: excessive demands can tear both the will and the muscles and stop their development, but without giving them exercise, you will certainly have both weak muscles and a weak will.”

This leads to the most important conclusion that the success of the exercise method depends on a comprehensive consideration of the psychological, physical and other individual qualities of people. Otherwise, both psychological and physical injuries are possible.

However, neither the methods of formation of consciousness, nor the methods of developing skills and abilities will give a reliable, long-term result if they are not reinforced with the help of methods of encouragement

and punishment, which form another, third group of educational means, called methods of stimulation.

The psychological basis of these methods lays in the experi-

ence that this or that element of the behavior of the educated person causes on the part of the comrades or the leader. With the help of such an assessment, and sometimes through self-assessment, a correction of the student's behavior is achieved.

Encouragement is an expression of a positive assessment, approval and recognition of the qualities, behavior, actions of a pupil or an entire group. The effectiveness of encouragement is based on the excitation of positive emotions, a sense of satisfaction, self-confidence, contributing to further success in work or study. Forms of encouragement are very diverse: from an approving smile to rewarding with a valuable gift. The higher the level of the reward, the longer and more stable its positive effect. Especially effective is public rewarding in a solemn atmosphere, in the presence of comrades, teachers and leaders.

However, if used ineptly, this technique can also bring harm for example, oppose the pupil to other members of the team. Therefore, along with the individual method, the collective method should also be used, i.e. encouragement of the group, the team as a whole, including those who showed diligence, responsibility, although they did not achieve outstanding success. Such an approach largely contributes to group cohesion, the formation of a sense of pride in their team, each of its members.

Punishment is an expression of a negative assessment, condemnation of actions and deeds that are contrary to accepted norms of behavior that violate laws. The purpose of this method is to achieve a change in a person's behavior, causing feelings of shame, a feeling of dissatisfaction, and thus push him to correct the mistake made.

The method of punishment should be used in exceptional cases, carefully considering all the circumstances, analyzing the causes of the misconduct and choosing a form of punishment that would correspond to the severity of the guilt and the individual characteristics of the offender and would not humiliate his dignity. It should be remembered that the price of a mistake

in this matter can be very high.

Nevertheless, the application of punishments can sometimes not be avoided. Their forms can be varied: from remarks to exclusion from the team. However, it should be remembered that the use of this method is the exception rather than the rule; its too frequent use indicates a general trouble in the education system and the need to correct it. In any case, but as a general rule, a repressive, punitive bias in education is recognized as unacceptable.

In the process of education, it is necessary to use the whole diverse range of methods and techniques. This is persuasion with a word addressed primarily to the mind, the use of the method of persuasion, the power of example this is also the impact on the emotional sphere, the feelings of pupils. The most important role in the educational impact is also played by constant exercises, the organization of practical activities of students, during which skills, habits, behaviors are developed, and experience is accumulated. In this multifaceted system, the methods of inducement and stimulation, especially the methods of punishment, play only an auxiliary role.

§ METHODS AND MEANS OF UPBRINGING

The method of upbringing is the way to achieve the given goal of upbringing. Methods are ways of influencing the consciousness will, feelings, behavior of pupils in order to develop in them the qualities set by the goal of upbringing.

The means of education is a set of methods.

Factors determining the choice of methods of upbringing:

Goals and objectives of education. What is the goal, such should be the method of achieving it.

The content of upbringing.

Age characteristics of pupils. The same tasks are solved by different methods depending on the age of the pupils.

The level of formation of the team. With the development of collective forms of self-government, the methods of pedagogical

cal influence do not remain unchanged: the flexibility of management is a necessary condition for successful cooperation between the educator and pupils.

Individual and personal characteristics of pupils.

Conditions of upbringing are the climate in the team, the style of pedagogical leadership, etc.

Means of upbringing. Methods of upbringing become means when they act as components of the upbringing process.

Level of pedagogical qualification. The educator chooses only those methods with which he is familiar, which he owns.

Parenting time. When time is short and the goals are large, "strong" methods are used, in favorable conditions, "sparing" methods of upbringing are used.

Expected consequences. Choosing a method, the educator must be sure of success. To do this, it is necessary to foresee what results the application of the method will lead to.

Classification of upbringing methods

The classification of methods is a system of methods built on a certain basis. Classification helps to discover in methods the general and specific, essential and accidental, theoretical and practical, and thus contributes to their conscious choice, the most effective application.

By their nature, the methods of education are divided into persuasion, exercise, encouragement and punishment.

According to the results, the methods of influencing the pupil can be divided into two classes:

influence that creates moral attitudes, motives, relationships that form ideas, concepts, ideas;

influence that creates habits that determine a particular type of behavior. Classification of upbringing methods based on orientation:

Methods of formation of consciousness of the person.

Methods of organizing activities and forming the experience of social behavior.

Methods of stimulating behavior and activity.

§ THE ROLE OF THE FAMILY IN EDUCATION

The family is the most common type of social group, the main cell of society in which a person is born, formed, develops and most of the time during his life is a person.



Family relationships usually determine the psychology and behavior of a person, so the family is of particular interest for socio-psychological research. A typical modern family in developed European countries consists of 2-6 people: husband, wife, children and immediate relatives on the maternal and paternal lines - grandparents.

The main purpose of the family is the satisfaction of social, group and individual needs. As a social cell of society, the family satisfies a number of its most important needs, including in the reproduction of the population. At the same time, it satisfies the personal needs of each of its members, as well as general family (group) needs. From this follow the main functions of the family: reproductive, economic, educational, communicative, organization of leisure and recreation. Between them there is a close relationship, interpenetration and complementarity.

Both adults and children are brought up in the family. Of particular importance is its impact on the younger generation. Therefore, the educational function of the family has three aspects. The first is the formation of the child's personality, the development of his abilities and interests, the transfer to children by adult family members (mother, father, grandfather, grand-

mother, etc.) of the social experience accumulated by society; the development of a scientific worldview, a highly moral attitude to work; instilling in them a sense of collectivism and internationalism, the need and ability to be a citizen and master, to observe the norms of socialist community life and behavior; enrichment of their intellect, aesthetic development, promotion of their physical improvement, health promotion and development of sanitary and hygienic culture skills. The second aspect is the systematic educational impact of the family team on each of its members throughout his life. The third aspect is the constant influence of children on their parents (and other adult members of the family), which encourages them to actively engage in self-education.

A person experiences the influence of the family from the day of birth until the end of his life. This means that family education is characterized by continuity and duration. And in this no other educational public institution can compare with the family. Of course, the influence of the family on children at different periods of their lives is not the same. The very natural life in the family teaches the preschooler, and then the schoolchild, very, very much. Since family education is inconceivable without parental love for children and the reciprocal feeling of children for their parents, it is more emotional in nature than any other education. The family unites people of different ages, gender, often with different professional interests. This allows the child to fully express their emotional and intellectual capabilities.

A characteristic feature of the educational influence of the family on children is its stability. Usually, the correct attitude of parents to the upbringing of children of early and preschool age has a positive effect later on their educational, labor and social activity. And vice versa, insufficient attention of parents to the upbringing of children of pre-preschool and preschool age negatively affects their social activity even when they are already studying at school.

The family has the most active influence on the development of spiritual culture, on the social orientation of the individual, and on the motives of behavior. Being a micro model of society for the child, the family turns out to be the most important factor in the development of a system of social attitudes and the formation of life plans. Social rules are first realized in the family, the cultural values of society are consumed through the family, the knowledge of other people begins with the family. The range of influence of the family on the upbringing of children is as wide as the range of social influence.

If a family has several children, then natural conditions appear for the formation of a full-fledged family team. And this enriches the life of each family member and creates a favorable environment for the successful fulfillment of the educational function by the family. In a family with one child, all this is greatly complicated. A.S. Makarenko wrote: "One can, for example, resolutely assert that the upbringing of an only child is more difficult than the upbringing of several children. Even if the family is experiencing some financial difficulties, one should not be limited to one child.

As society influences the family, creating a certain type of it, so the family has a considerable influence on the development and way of life of society. The family plays an important role in accelerating the economic and social development of society, in educating the younger generation, in achieving happiness for every person.

Family pedagogy solves certain problems. It is designed to study the state, main trends and patterns of raising children in the family. Therefore, its tasks include: development of theoretical problems of family education; studying the experience of family education; introduction of scientific achievements into the practice of family education; study of ways to improve the pedagogical culture of parents; substantiation of the expedient correlation of family and public education and technology of interaction between parents and professional teachers.

The methods of family pedagogy, like any other branch of pedagogical science, are divided into two groups:

- 1) the methods of upbringing and education with the help of which home education is carried out;
- 2) research methods that are used to study the family as an educational institution.

The study of the family causes certain difficulties due to the fact that it is a relatively closed cell of society. Family research is carried out at different levels: theoretical and empirical. Empirically, the factual material characterizing the family and home education is collected. Facts are something real, concrete from the field of phenomena under study, so it is important to establish and describe them.

VIII PRACTICAL TASKS FOR SEMINARS

THE SUBJECT OF PSYCHOLOGY. BRANCHES AND METHODS OF PSYCHOLOGY THE ROLE OF PSYCHOLOGY IN MEDICINE

“... medicine is not a technique dominated by the exact sciences - physics, mathematics, cybernetics, which are not the basis of the doctor's logical operations. These operations, like the study itself, are especially complex because not an abstract disease lies on a hospital bed, but a specific patient, that is, there is always some kind of individual refraction of the disease ... the main, most objective cause of medical problems is rooted in the individual factor. mistakes and no guidance, no experience can guarantee the absolute infallibility of the doctor's thoughts and actions, although, as an ideal, this remains our motto.

I.V. Davydovsky

“She has one chance ... Well, let's say, against ten ... and then, if she herself wants to live. Our whole pharmacology loses its meaning when people start acting in the interest of the undertaker.”

O. Henry (from the novel "The Last Leaf")

№ 1. Describe specific life and professional situations in which psychological knowledge and skills are needed.

№ 2. Determine what types of mental phenomena (processes, properties and states) appear in the following situations:

- a) The student is doing his homework with concentration.
- b) The girl, having come from the cinema, enthusiastically tells her mother about him.
- c) The boss is strict with his subordinates, treats them rudely, gets irritated for any reason.
- d) The boy was very upset when he found out that their class was not going camping.
- e) The waiter lists to the visitor all the names of the wines in the assortment.

№ 3. Give examples of the manifestation of mental processes, properties and states in specific life situations.

№ 4. Determine which branches of psychology solve the following tasks:

a) Determine the factors influencing the course of the crisis of adolescence.

b) Identify the reasons for the decline in labor productivity at the enterprise.

c) Develop ways to attract the attention of students in the lesson.

d) Identify the leader in the team and involve him in the organization of group work.

e) Determine the temperament of a person according to the characteristics of behavior.

f) To study the influence of daily human biorhythms on the productivity of his work.

g) Determine the amount of short-term memory in the elderly.

h) Develop ways to establish business relationships in the emerging team.

i) Determine the factors influencing the psychological characteristics of a neglected teenager.

j) To assist teenagers in choosing a profession.

№5. Give examples of specific tasks that various branches of psychology solve.

№6. What methods of psychological research were used in the following situations

a) The psychologist asks the subject to repeat 10 words that he has just read.

b) A group of subjects must answer questions about their interests in writing.

c) The psychologist invites children to draw a non-existent animal.

d) At a consultation with a psychologist, the visitor talks about the problems that bother him.

e) The psychologist presents the subject with "terrible" pictures and registers the resulting changes in the skin's resistance to electric current.

f) The psychologist, investigating the labor activity of the manager at the enterprise, is unnoticed by him in the room.

g) In order to study the effect of a new psychotropic drug on human behavior, scientists give injections to rats and dogs.

h) In order to find out the features of interpersonal relationships that arise in groups of tourists following long-distance routes, a psychologist under the guise of an ordinary tourist enters one of these groups.

i) To test the effectiveness of the methodology developed by scientists for the rapid learning of a foreign language, a study is organized, during which one group of subjects is taught in the proposed way, and the other in the traditional way. Then the results are compared.

j) When selecting students for a class for gifted children, the psychologist examines their abilities.

№ 7. Do you know psychology? Training - "Who is who?"
(quoted from the "Collection of psycho-corrective techniques" - Yaroslavl, 1994 - fragment)

The teacher asks the students to take a pen and 2 sheets of paper. Then, one by one, he reads out the questions, and the students give written answers to them. Before starting the exercise, the teacher says that the answers should contain truthful and accurate information, but at the same time, students should avoid features that would immediately betray the author. After writing the answer to the last question, students hand over their papers (without a signature, it is better if there is a pseudonym), they are shuffled, and the teacher reads out the answers. Before each answer, he briefly recalls the question posed. When reading, everyone "gets used" to the personality of the author and tries to guess who it is. They can put their thoughts on paper, at first these are preliminary notes, and only with repeated review

reading is the final answer given to the question: who wrote what?

After that, students reveal their authorship, and each one reports how many times he guessed and who. One point is given for each correct answer. The results of the exercise reflect the participants' ability to anticipate the inherently psychological reactions of others.

The exercise is used to demonstrate the reserves of professionally active attention, in comparison with everyday attention, not mobilized.

№ 8. List of questions:

1. If you had to change profession, what would you choose?
2. What would you do with a \$1,000 win?
3. What kind of research would you organize if you had unlimited possibilities?
4. If you had to turn into an animal and you could choose which one, what would you be?
5. What piece of music would you like to listen to without interference?
6. What dish would you order in a luxury restaurant?
7. Which real person (from history or today) causes you the most sympathy?
8. If you had the opportunity to ask a question to the great philosopher, what would you ask?
9. What can't money buy?
10. What proverb do you remember more often than others?

The volume of questions and their content can vary significantly depending on the methodological guidelines of the teacher. The results of the exercise can be compared and viewed from different points of view. It is possible, for example, to identify not only the student who guessed the largest number of authors, but also the one whose authorship was recognized most often

and find out the reason.

The opposite approach is also possible: they reveal whose authorship has not been unraveled at all. This fact can also provide stimuli for reflection and discussion.

№ 9. About the reasons for the prejudice of doctors in relation to psychology (discussion)

"I. Hardy speaks of the "psychological scotoma" of medical workers who do not take into account the mental life of the patient and in their reasoning stop at the level of the autonomic nervous system. He gives some reasons for the prejudice of medical professionals against psychology:

1. The traditional predominance of physical, chemical, pathological and anatomical knowledge, which they consider decisive.

2. They consider essential only what can be reliably registered by the senses: an ideal sample, for example, is an x-ray of a bone.

3. Visible physical signs have always led people to seek medical attention.

4. These trends are especially encouraged in the age of technological progress.

5. The doctor's concept of "disease" is more likely to coincide with the presentation of organic data, and not with a violation of function.

6. In the training of doctors and nurses, psychological and psychiatric education is not at the proper level, which, to a greater or lesser extent, also applies to further professional development in the process of work.

7. Deeper personality traits of a medical worker, mental shock, a state of anxiety and neuroticism may also have an influence. A neurotic physician will not always be inclined to better understand a neurotic patient. Sometimes even if he compensates and copes with his difficulties, he expects the same from the patient and sometimes expresses this openly: "I have the

same thing, but I do not pay attention to it." There is a psychic projection mechanism at work here." (Quoted by Konechny R., Bowhal M. Psychology in Medicine. - Prague, 1983)

PERSONALITY

№1. A family came to a psychologist for a consultation: mom, dad and their 9-year-old son. Parents' complaint: "The child is lazy, does not do homework, studies poorly, although he is quite smart. Of course, we punish him: he hardly watches TV with us, and we spank him, sometimes, but there is no result. What should we do and why is this happening?"

- What controls do these parents use?
- How effective is such control from Skinner's point of view?
- Explain to these parents, as Skinner would have done, why their parenting interventions are producing this outcome.
- What other behaviors would you suggest to the parents of this boy?
- Give a general classification and evaluate the effectiveness of ways to control behavior through various types of incentives.

№ 2. After the death of his beloved wife, a 60-year-old man fell into a deep crisis and is thinking about suicide.

- Within the framework of what psychological direction was the question of such crises first raised?
- What types of values identified by this direction do people have?
- What kind of values will you be working with in this example?
- What can you say to this client about his situation?
- How effective is this approach in dealing with such problems? Why?

№3. A person in a leadership position at work behaves like a tyrant in relation to subordinates, assuring everyone that only

in this way can anything be achieved from them. In the family, he turns into a soft father and husband

- "henpecked".

Can this behavior be considered psychopathic?

How does orthodox psychoanalysis explain such behavior?

What psychological defense mechanisms does this manager use?

How would you behave if you worked under his leadership?

№ 4. Among scientists there is no unity of views on the question: with what does a person come into life. Some scientists deny that humans have instinctive forms of behavior.

- Do you agree with this?
- What is the significance of the distinction between instinctive, inherited and innate behaviors for understanding human development?

№ 5. The psychologist "in an objective study of a person does not observe anything that he could call consciousness, feeling, sensation, imagination, will ... He comes to the conclusion that all these terms can be excluded from the description of human life ... Consciousness and its subdivisions are therefore nothing more than terms that enable psychology to preserve - in a disguised form, it is true - the old religious concept of "soul".

• The psychologist of which scientific school is referred to in the quote?

• What is the epistemological basis of this statement?

№ 6. Conversation as a method of studying personality: "A program for studying personality in its relationship to the environment" A.F. Lazursky - S.L. Frank.

The ingenious Russian scientist - doctor, psychologist, teacher - Alexander Fedorovich Lazursky and the world-famous Russian philosopher Semyon Ludwigovich Frank in a 1912 publication (Russian School magazine) proposed a detailed personality assessment scheme that has not lost its relevance to the present. In the "Comprehensive self-characteristic - part 3" (see site

materials) it is given in full with minor features related to changing the order of topics and grouping them into four "blocks".

According to the compiler, we have before us practically the only attempt in the domestic psychological literature - within the framework of the CONVERSATION - to give a DETAILED description of the personality of a HEALTHY person in the system of his social relations.

№ 7. Observation as a method of studying personality: homework "Behavioral portrait according to observation data"

Students are invited to draw up a "Behavioral portrait of a person based on observational data" (quoted from the "General Workshop on Psychology" - Moscow State University, 1985). The task is carried out in a workbook for practical exercises (in the form of a "diary of observations"). The development of this task includes two sessions with an interval of two weeks, during which the necessary observations are made.

At the first lesson, students get acquainted with the content of the task - to draw up a "behavioral portrait" of a person (their group mate) based on observational data, that is, to give such an accurate and detailed description of the pattern of his behavior and habits that it is possible to unambiguously identify the portrait with the one who is under observation...

It should be emphasized that any references to the characteristic, distinctive features of the appearance of the observed person, such as "slightly squinting with the left eye" or "most often dressed in a pink blouse", should be completely excluded in the portrait.

In the task, it is proposed to use a cross-observation scheme, in which several people observe one subject at once, and the subject himself, in turn, acts as an observer in relation to someone else.

To do this, each student receives a card with the name of the person whose behavior he must describe. It is a necessary requirement for students to maintain secrecy as to who is watch-

ing whom. Thus, each becomes aware of only his own object of observation; each observer has no knowledge of who others are observing, or whether he himself is the object of observation.

At the first stage, students must make the first "behavioral portraits" of their observables, the basis of which is the entire previous experience of communicating with the observable and the data accumulated as a result of everyday, everyday observations of his behavior. Notes for this description:

a) is compiled in an arbitrary form, the use of comparisons, literary turns, etc. is possible;

b) should address as many aspects and behaviors as possible;

c) may relate to any features of the subject's behavior, starting with characteristic gestures and facial expressions and ending with the most general characteristics of behavior (such as, for example, ways of solving life problems, etc.);

d) should not contain indications of the specific features of the appearance of the observed, by which he is easily recognized and unmistakably identified; as well as judgments and assessments of the observer regarding the personality of the observed person.

Taking into account the fact that behavioral portraits will be read and discussed in the classroom, attempts to "penetrate into the inner world" should be abandoned in the descriptions, which can not only offend those observed, but also worsen the psychological climate in the group.

For two weeks before the second session, students observe their subjects, trying to capture as much information as possible to draw up a "portrait". Observation should, if possible, cover the behavior of the subject in various situations, illuminate it from different angles.

Observation should be covert, tactful, trying so that the subject does not notice the fact of observation, so that the observation does not distort his natural behavior, and his influence on

the situation of observation is minimal. The results of the observation are recorded in the observation diary, which is kept in accordance with the requirements for such diaries.

By the second lesson, students must submit a diary of observations and a second "portrait" of the subject written on the basis of systematic, relatively long-term observations.

In the second lesson, the diaries of observations are checked and the descriptions of behavior compiled are analyzed.

When comparing data obtained by different observers, different approaches to the object of observation are found, which are inevitable with a non-standardized type of observation. Qualitative analysis of the agreement of observers allows us to consider the reasons for the discrepancy between them, to identify the significance of the objective conditions of observation (duration, frequency, difference in situations).

№ 8. "Seven Dragons" by J. Stevens (Stevens J. "Curb your dragons: How to turn your shortcomings into virtues" - St. Petersburg, Priter, 1995)

"The best and most suitable source for this book as historical material was for me," writes J. Stevens, "the works of the Russian scientist ... G.I. Gurdjieff and his followers - R. Uspensky and G. Bennett. ... "Dragons" ... exist to make us strong. They serve as a means of our transformation. Nothing of any significance in this life is achieved without some sort of testing of one's own abilities.

The view of J. Stevens is in many ways reminiscent of A. Maslow's metapathology. However, the achievement of the scientist was the combination in one characteristic of opposites - according to the principle of the unity of birth. Thus, fire can be warming, life-giving, and can destroy all living things in its path. Natural elements have just such a Gift - to be different, depending on the ability of a person to manage them, and therefore, himself.

Read the statements carefully and determine the leader -

the group in which you found the largest number of positive answers (we provide only a fragment of the questionnaire). In the table (where the order of presentation is preserved) you will find out the usual name of this "dragon", and the book by J. Stevens - ways to tame it and all the more detailed information.

First Dragon

*Some people say it's hard to get to know me better.

* It is better to die a thousand times than to be embarrassed in front of people.

* I like to feel special.

* It must seem to others that I am in control of my every step.

* I have to work hard to overcome my shyness.

* I hate being subjected to someone else's assessments or comparisons.

* It's hard for me to apologize.

* I am very critical of myself and often secretly criticize others as well.

* I try to catch my reflection in shop windows and mirrors to check if everything is in order.

* Winning is very important to me.

Second Dragon

* I often doubt my abilities and feel embarrassed.

* If I feel that I have done something wrong, I will definitely offer my deepest apologies.

* If something goes wrong, I usually feel that this is partly my fault.

* I am often told to straighten up and not slouch.

* I am very unfair to myself.

* There are many things that I would like to do, but I doubt my abilities and I am afraid to put myself at risk.

* People say that I lack self-confidence.

* Often I feel that a new car or clothes are too good for me.

* Sometimes I am asked to speak louder because the interlocutors cannot hear me.

* Sometimes I catch myself on the fact that my breathing is fast and shallow.

Third Dragon

* Often I feel like I'll never find what I'm looking for.

* When something goes wrong, I want to go shopping to cheer myself up.

* When something goes wrong, I feel hungry and feel like I'll never eat.

* When I really want something, I often restrain myself. I'm trying to control myself, but it's so hard.

* Often I lay down my arms and go on about my desires, which is why I later feel guilty and deeply remorseful.

* Often I dream of having all of what I want to have, at least partially.

* I'm worried that I'll be left with nothing.

* Sometimes I can't choose between the things I would like to have. Then I don't buy anything and afterwards I feel really bad.

* I often rush into risky operations.

* I often blame my partner for not feeling satisfied.

Fourth Dragon

* When something goes wrong, I take a drink or two to feel better.

* Sometimes I think about killing myself because life is too hard and painful.

* I often put my life in serious danger by driving fast or driving in potentially disastrous situations; at the same time, I always explain to others that everything is in order and there is nothing to worry about.

* Sometimes it seems to me that I interfere with everyone, and without me, those around me would breathe a sigh of relief.

- * I often think that my life will not last too long.
- * Most of the time things go wrong for me.
- * I have a long list of broken relationships with friends and broken agreements.
- * I'm worried that I could seriously offend someone.
- * I like to prove that I can overcome danger.
- * I have serious breakdowns that end in tantrums or outbursts of anger.

Fifth Dragon

- * I often feel like I don't have enough time to finish my work.
- * Sometimes, in a hurry, I drop or break things around me.
- * It worries me that life flows faster than I have time to do something.
- * Often I have to hurry children, friends or co-workers who move or act too slowly.
- * I often interrupt the interlocutor or finish the thought for him.
- * In my desire to be in time everywhere and do everything, I am often late for an appointment.
- * I often leave the house too late and forget or lose things in a hurry.
- * It is difficult for me to slow down the rhythm of life even on vacation or on vacation.
- * I have a lot of plans for the day, and, as a rule, there is not enough time to implement them.
- * Most of the time I feel tired both physically and mentally.

Sixth Dragon

- * People around me say that I love to cry in a vest, but they just don't understand how difficult everything is around.
- * Often circumstances develop in such a way that I have no choice.

* In life, you just can't do what you want. There are too many things around that interfere with this.

* Others often take my attitude towards them for granted. They don't even realize how much I do for them.

* When others make useful suggestions, I usually know well what will prevent their implementation.

* It seems to me that I will never find a person who would really help me.

* No one has the right to cause me those troubles, because of which I have already suffered so much in my life.

* Most children are simply ungrateful, wanting more of what they already have.

* It's usually hard for me to refuse someone's request.

* Often I need a person who would cheer me up or at least cheer me up; I'm doing much worse than the rest.

Seventh Dragon

* When in doubt, I usually say no.

* I hate it when someone comes in with their advice about what I should do and how I should live.

* Sudden changes scare me.

* Sometimes I do contrary to what I am advised, just to show who is the boss here.

* When I want, I can be very stubborn.

* Surrounding people say that I stand firmly on my feet.

* Sometimes I feel that I am being too stubborn and hindering success even in my own affairs.

* I am able to insist on my own, in spite of any objections.

* It's hard for me to make concessions, even when I know I'm wrong.

* No one will stop me from implementing my plan.

In the table below, the main "dragons" according to J. Stevens (in other concepts they are called "passions", "sins", "vices", etc.) are considered from the standpoint of age development, so

it is easier to "recognize" them. Each "dragon" (see column on the far left) can play a creative role, providing a high level of adaptation; and destructive, destructive, up to suicide or the choice of a criminal "career".

We emphasize that the concept of J. Stevens was initially of a psychotherapeutic nature and the psychological diagnosis of "dragons" is aimed at developing the personality.

	MATURITY LEVEL				
THE DRAGON	<i>thoracic baby</i>	<i>Baby, taking the first steps</i>	Teenager	Youth	<i>Adult Human</i>
+ pride Arrogance - vanity	<i>most big monster</i>	<i>small bureaucrat</i>	high status	timidity	philosophical arrogance
+ modesty self-deprecation - lack of self-esteem	<i>servile Savage</i>	dummy	concerns about age and appearance	unfitness, misunderstandings	absence faith at the very myself
+ courage impatience - intemperance	ruthlessness in receiving pleasures	increased irritability	posthaste	incontinence towards oneself and the environment	impatience of wild imagination
+ dedication Martyrdom longing for martyrdom	extreme degree manifestations of sacrifice	an obedient ram in public life and a pawn in someone else's game	martyr, financially controlled problems	political martyr	moderate pursuit to sacrifice

+ taste for joy-tyam - Greed - insatiability	wild pursuit to survive at any cost	Attachment to pernicious habits and local corruption	secret hoarding, money-grubbing and neglect of others	jealous y and lust for love	spiritual ma-terialism
+ self-sacrifice Self-destruction - suicidal tendencies	pouring into crimemadness	desire to be caught by the hand	short life without regard to tomorrow	inclinati on to sui-icide	self-sabotage
+ decisiveness stubbornne ss - stupid stubbornne ss	autism and catatonia	Shaved-headed, reac-tionaries, ex-treme right-wingers	"your guys", mafia	"left" radicals and re-bels	violent inner struggle with oneself

Tab. 4.2. Ages (level) of personality maturity and "Seven Dragons" (J. Stevens, 1995)

№9. Determination of psychological age

“Imagine in your mind all of life - past, present and future. What year were you born? To what age do you hope to live? ... (Give a more or less realistic estimate). Using the table, try to evaluate each five years of your life by the degree of saturation with important (subjectively) events. “Events” can be any changes in the routine of life, in the inner world (thoughts, feelings, experiences), socio-political events that have influenced you, illnesses and changes in health, etc. Based on this understanding of the word "events", first evaluate the saturation of the first five years (up to 5 years inclusive). Mark your assessment with a dot on the “graph”, considering that 100% is the maximum degree of saturation. Also evaluate the saturation of each of the remaining five years (both past and upcoming, up to the age you marked as - “the end of life”).

Attention! Each five-year period should have only one as-

assessment of eventfulness, but it should have one.

Psychological age

1. Calculate the total score.
2. Calculate how many points fall on the past five years (proportionately take into account the years that are not multiples of five years).
3. Divide the sum of the "past scores" by the total scores of all five years. The result obtained is an indicator of the subjective "realization of life".
4. Multiply this by your life expectancy. This is your mental age

Analysis of changes, ("drops") of the "life line".

Satisfaction with life (in percent)

100																		
90																		
80																		
70																		
60																		
50																		
40																		
30																		
20																		
10																		
	5	10	15	20	25	30	35	40	45	50	55	60	65	70	75	80	85	90

Years of life.....

Comment on the points of change of the "lifeline" on the chart (in the past and in the future). ...

№ 10. Basic approaches to the study of personality in the practice of a doctor.

Compare the main views on the personality of representatives of various areas in the study of personality and, accordingly, their recommendations for building interaction with the patient during treatment (in the design of the "therapeutic con-

tract")

- * Constitutional approach to the typology of personalities;
- * Psychodynamic direction;
- * Behavioral psychology;
- * "Existential-humanistic" psychology;
- * Personality "as a system of relations" (A.F. Lazursky - V.N. Myasishchev).

- * "Activity" approaches (A.N. Leontiev, A.G. Asmolov);

One of the questions of the discussion may be: "What direction in the study of personality should be attributed to the tests chosen as material for self-diagnosis in the topics of the Workshop? Explain your position..."

ACTIVITY

№ 1. Analyze the types of activities that are familiar to you (playing, educational and labor), highlighting in them the motive, goal, tasks, conditions for performing, actions and operations.

№ 2. In the following situations, highlight the structural components of the activity (motive, goal, tasks, conditions for implementation, actions and operations).

a) Wanting to look good at her friend's wedding, the girl diligently sews herself a fashionable beautiful dress according to a pattern she took from a magazine.

b) To please and surprise her guests, the hostess studies cookbooks and calls friends in search of "exotic" recipes.

c) Going on a long trip, a motorist checks the condition of his car, fills a full tank of gasoline, renews the oil, pumps up the wheels, and purchases a minimum of spare parts.

d) Wishing to get a decent mark at the seminar, the student goes to the library, patiently notes the scientific article, looking for answers to the teacher's questions.

№ 3. Analyze the situation in which any activity is per-

formed, highlighting its structural components. Consider different options for changing activities depending on the changing conditions of a given situation.

№ 4. Show with specific examples the functions of the game in the lives of people of different ages.

6. Develop recommendations for increasing labor motivation.

NEED AND MOTIVATIONAL SPHERE

№ 1. Analyze the following needs, highlighting the subject, emotional coloring, method of satisfaction, cyclicity and saturation rate in them: needs for food, rest, information, communication, approval, power, fame, reading fiction.

№ 2. Determine which needs and motives are actualized by the following influences:

- 1) If you want to have a good evening, visit our cafe.
- 2) If you leave now, you will never see me again.
- 3) If you do not stop talking to me in that tone, I will have to ask you to leave my office!
- 4) If you want to look your best today, let's go to my friend's hairdresser.
- 5) Please turn up the sound otherwise we will not hear the news.
- 6) Please try on this dress! It fits your image so well!

№ 3. Give examples of situations in which the motives for achieving success and avoiding failure are actualized.

№ 4. In which of the families will most likely grow up children with a high need for achievement:

- where parents are very protective of their children;
- where parents encourage independence in children;
- where parents try to make their children have many friends;
- where parents themselves choose who to be friends with their children.

№ 5. Make a list of external and internal motives, in the performance of which a person is satisfied with his work.

№ 6. List the external and internal motives that arise in educational activities.

№ 7. Develop recommendations for the development of cognitive motivation for learning activities.

№ 8. Develop recommendations for interacting with people with different types of orientation (hedonic, cognitive, glory, aesthetic, etc.).

№ 9. Analyze several complex volitional actions in stages: highlight the stages of the struggle of motives, decision-making, awareness and formation of a goal, formation of an action program, execution of actions and their correction, achievement of a result and its final assessment.

№ 10. Hierarchy of motives (according to A. Maslow).

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
1	*														
2		*													
3			*												
4				*											
5					*										
6						*									
7							*								
8								*							

Instructions: "Here are 15 statements that you must evaluate by comparing them in pairs with each other.

Compare the 1st statement with the 2nd, 3rd, etc. and put the result (plus sign) in the appropriate column.

So, if, when comparing the first statement with the second, you find the second one preferable for yourself, then put a plus sign in column 2, in line 1.

If the first statement is preferable, then put a plus sign in

column 1, opposite the number 2,

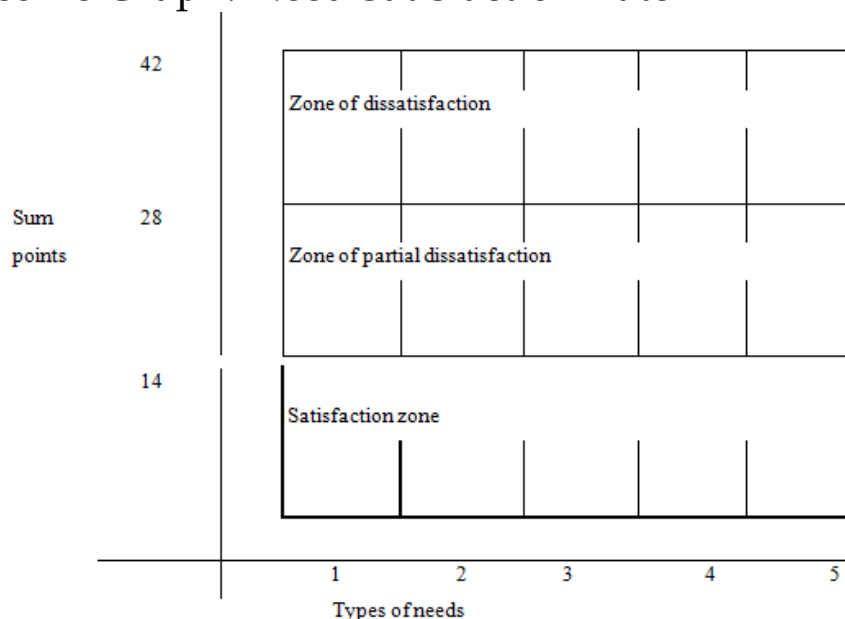
Then do the same with the 3rd statement, then with the 4th, etc., entering the result in the appropriate cells.

While working, it is useful to say the phrase “I prefer ...” aloud to each pair of statements.

Achieve recognition and respect.

1. Have warm relationships with people.
2. Secure your future.
3. Earn a living.
4. Have good interlocutors.
5. Strengthen your position.
6. Develop your strengths and abilities.
7. Provide yourself with material comfort.
8. Raise the level of skill and competence.
9. Avoid trouble.
10. Strive for the new and the unknown.
11. Secure yourself a position of influence.
12. Buy good things.
13. Engage in a business that requires full dedication.
14. Be understood by others.

Outcome Graph: Need Satisfaction Rate



“In the everyday joys and sorrows of life, you need to be a sanguine

person, in important life events - a melancholic person, regarding drives that deeply affect our interests - a choleric person, and, finally, in the execution of decisions taken once, a phlegmatic person."

Wilhelm Wundt (professor, psychologist)

№ 1 Based on the characteristics, determine the type of temperament of the student. What properties of the nervous system are manifested in this characteristic?

A. Victor G., 3rd grade. Slow. The gait is leisurely, waddle. He speaks slowly, but in detail, consistently. At the lessons he sits quite with an indifferent face, he does not raise his hands, but he answers the teacher's questions correctly. When the teacher asks why he did not raise his hand, he answers in monosyllables: "Yes, so ...". It is difficult to make him laugh or anger. He himself usually does not offend his comrades, he is indifferent to the quarrels of others. Gentle, but too lazy to do something for his comrades. Rarely enters into a conversation, more silent. Understands material quickly. It is required to repeat new material to him several times, but he performs the task correctly and accurately. Likes order. Having come to the class from another school, he hardly became friends with the guys. According to her mother, she often remembers the old teacher. Apparently affectionate. (According to I.M. Paley, 1966).

B. Boris R., 3rd grade. Infinitely captivating. Often takes work beyond his strength. Extremely mobile. At any moment, ready to take off and fly in any direction. Hands do not find rest. Turns head quickly and frequently in all directions. Extremely irascible. He learns the material quickly and correctly, but often gives inconsistent answers due to haste. You have to tell him all the time: "Don't answer right away, think first, take your time." Rapidly shifts from laughter to anger and vice versa. Loves war games. Very proactive. Teachers are literally bombarded with questions. Responsive to both good and bad (the bad is now less common, since a lot of pedagogical work is being done with him). When he gets angry, he still does not know how to restrain

himself, although he tries. She loves getting good grades. Says: "Emerald five." Although he can run anywhere a hundred times, he often forgets the assignment along the way, because from the desire to complete it as soon as possible, he does not listen to the end. (According to M.I. Paley, 1966)

V. Sasha D. Grade 2. Very impressionable. The slightest trouble unbalances him, cries over every trifle. Once Sasha started crying only because he did not immediately find a textbook in his portfolio. Very touchy. He remembers grievances for a long time and perceives them painfully. Dreamy. Often looks out the window thoughtfully, instead of playing with his comrades. Dutifully obeys the rules of the game. Passive in the children's team. Often reveals disbelief in their own strength. If there are difficulties in the work, he easily gives up, gets lost and does not bring the matter to the end. But if you insist on completing the task, in most cases it will do it no worse than others. (according to I. M, Paley, 1996).

G. Lena V., 2nd grade. The girl is very mobile, she does not sit still for a minute during the lessons, she constantly changes her position, twirls something in her hands, stretches her hand, talks with a neighbor. Easily interested in everything new, but relatively quickly cools down. The prevailing mood is cheerful and cheerful. To the question: "How are you? - usually replies with a smile: "Very good!", although sometimes it turns out that the marks she received are not so good. About five happily announces to everyone in the house. He does not hide the deuce, but always cheerfully adds: "It's so ... by accident ...". Sometimes upset, even crying, but not for long. Mimic is alive. Despite the liveliness and restlessness, it is easy to discipline her. In interesting lessons, he shows great energy and efficiency. Easily converges with friends, quickly gets used to new requirements. Very talkative.

№ 2 Indicate those features that characterize the sanguine, phlegmatic, choleric and melancholic.

A. Increased activity, prolonged performance, energy, restraint, irascibility, restlessness, patience, slowness, movement and speech, slow change of feelings and moods, weak emotional excitability, rapid assimilation and restructuring of skills, affectivity, poverty and movements, low activity, lethargy, expressiveness, facial expressions and pantomimes, silence, hypersensitivity.

B. Cheerful, elevated mood, quick adaptability to a new environment, slow assimilation and restructuring of skills, self-doubt, increased emotional excitability, restraint, monotony

№ 3 What property of temperament manifested itself in Aida and Luda? By what signs can this be established? Aida and Luda are 9th grade students. They have approximately the same academic performance and the same position in the team. When at the beginning of the school year they learned that their class would be disbanded, Aida announced with satisfaction that she would finally part with the guys who offended her. Luda noticed with annoyance that now she would again be in the same class with R. and U., with whom she had broken off her friendship. However, after the class was disbanded, Luda met everyone for the first time, and Aida did not even approach the new students for a long time.

№ 4 Determine what property of temperament is mentioned in the example? What property of temperament is manifested in Petya and Vanya? Petya loves the lively fuss around him, is very sociable, prefers to be the center of attention; Vanya, on the contrary, prefers silence and solitude. Difficulty meeting new people. Too much attention bothers him. № 3 What property of temperament manifested itself in Aida and Luda? By what signs can this be established? Aida and Luda are 9th grade students. They have approximately the same academic performance and the same position in the team. When at the beginning of the school year they learned that their class would be disbanded, Aida announced with satisfaction that she would finally

part with the guys who offended her. Luda noticed with annoyance that now she would again be in the same class with R. and U., with whom she had broken off her friendship. However, after the class was disbanded, Luda met everyone for the first time, and Aida did not even approach the new students for a long time.

№ 5. Diagnostics of the "Temperament Formula" according to A. Belov (cited by A. Rukhmanov, 1983).

Mark with a "+" sign those qualities in the "passport" of temperament that are ordinary for you, every day.

So, if you: 1. Restless, fussy (); 2. Unrestrained, quick-tempered (); 3. Impatient (); 4. Cutting and straightforward in dealing with people (); 5. Decisive and proactive (); 6. Stubborn (); 7. Resourceful in dispute (); 8. Work in jerks (); 9. Prone to risk (); 10. Forgiving and inoffensive (); 11. You have a fast, passionate, inconsistent intonation speech (); 12. Unbalanced and prone to ardor (); 13. Aggressive bully (); 14. Intolerant of shortcomings ();

15. Have expressive facial expressions (); 16. Able to act and decide quickly (); 17. Relentlessly strive for the new (); 18. Have sharp jerky movements ();

19. Persistent in achieving the goal (); 20. Prone to sudden mood swings (); - then you are a pure choleric.

If you: 1. Cheerful and cheerful (); 2. Energetic and businesslike (); 3. Often do not finish what you started (); 4. Tend to overestimate themselves (); 5. Able to quickly grasp the new (); 6. Unstable in interests and inclinations (); 7. You easily experience failures and troubles (); 8. Easily adapt to different circumstances (); 9. Take on any new business with enthusiasm (); 10. Cool down quickly if the case ceases to interest you (); 11. Quickly join a new job and quickly switch from one job to another (); 12. Weigh down on monotony, every day, painstaking work (); 13. Sociable and responsive, do not feel constrained with people new to you (); 14. Hardy and efficient (); 15. Possess loud, fast,

distinct speech, accompanied by lively gestures, expressive facial expressions (); 16. Maintain composure in an unexpected, difficult environment (); 17. Always have a cheerful mood ();

18. Quickly fall asleep and wake up (); 19. Often not collected, show haste in decisions (); 20. Sometimes they tend to slide over the surface, get distracted (); - then you, of course, are sanguine.

If you: 1. Calm and cool (); 2. Consistent and thorough in business ();

3. Careful and prudent (); 4. Know how to wait (); 5. Silent and do not like to talk in vain (); 6. Have a calm, even speech, with stops, without pronounced emotions, gestures and facial expressions (); 7. Restrained and patient (); 8. Bring the work you have started to the end (); 9. Do not waste your energy ();

10. Adhere to the developed daily routine, life, system at work (); 11. Easily restrain impulses (); 12. Less receptive to approval and censure (); 13. Gentle, show a condescending attitude towards barbs in your address (); 14. Constant in their relationships and interests (); 15. Slowly get involved in work and slowly switch from one thing to another (); 16. Equal in relations with everyone (); 17. Love accuracy and order in everything (); 18. With difficulty adapting to a new environment (); 19. Have endurance (); 20. Somewhat slow () - then you are, no doubt, phlegmatic.

If you are: 1. Shy and shy (); 2. Get lost in a new environment (); 3. Find it difficult to establish contact with strangers (); 4. Do not believe in yourself (); 5. Easily endure loneliness (); 6. Feel depressed and confused when you fail (); 7. Tend to withdraw into themselves (); 8. Get tired quickly (); 9. Have a quiet speech, sometimes reduced to a whisper (); 10. Involuntarily adapt to the nature of the interlocutor (); 11. Impressive to tears (); 12. Extremely susceptible to approval and blame (); 13. Make high demands on yourself and others (); 14. Prone to suspicion, suspiciousness ();

15. Painfully sensitive and easily vulnerable (); 16. Overly touchy (); 17. Secretive and unsociable, do not share your thoughts with anyone (); 18. Inactive and timid (); 19. Compliant, submissive (); 20. Strive to evoke sympathy and help from others (); - then you are pure melancholic.

CHARACTER

"In volitional deeds, character, on the one hand, develops and, on the other, manifests itself. The ideological content and direction of volitional actions, especially in situations that are very significant for the individual, pass into the character of a person, into his effective attitudes, being fixed in him as relatively stable properties; these properties, in turn, determine the behavior of a person, his volitional actions; resolute, courageous, etc. actions and deeds of a person are determined by the volitional qualities of a person, her character (her self-confidence, self-control, determination, perseverance, etc.)"

The character, contrary to a very popular belief, can include not only strong-willed and emotional, but also intellectual features, since they become personality traits, expressed in the qualitative originality of its relationship to the environment. So, frivolity, prudence, prudence, being intellectual qualities, are or can be character traits. At the same time, turning into character traits, intellectual qualities begin to characterize not one intellect as such, but the personality as a whole.

S.L. Rubinstein

№ 1. From the above judgments, choose those that most fully reveal the scientific understanding of character.

a) Character is such a total mental property of a person, which is both inherited and formed in the process of his life.

b) "Character traits are socially typical and individually unique."

c) "In the character, both the relations of the personality and the modes of action with the help of which these relations are carried out are manifested."

d) "Character is a style of social behavior that has developed and strengthened as a result of life influences and upbringing."

ing, typical for a person."

e) "The unity of motives and will is what forms the character of a person."

№ 2 List as many character traits as you can and categorize them in various ways.

№ 3. Predict how the properties of temperament under the influence of social conditions affecting them can be transformed into character traits.

№ 4. Develop 15 psychological recommendations to help the teacher, who is faced with the task of adapting a new student to the class team. Recommendations in this case should be drawn up, adhering to the following scheme: "If a new student has such and such (has a certain character trait, ability), then the teacher must (can) do this and that."

№ 5. Correct the following psychological recommendations so that they are adequate for such a character trait as sociability.

- a) Avoid meeting such a person.
- b) Don't let him use your phone.
- c) If you are going somewhere, you should take it with you.
- d) In difficult times for you, you should not go to visit him.
- e) You can leave your child with such a person for a long time.

What typical mistakes in the formulation of the given recommendations would you point out?

№ 6. What character traits appear in the following situations:

- a) A person carefully prepares for a public speech
- b) The girl constantly scatters her things, despite the remarks of her mother.
- c) A student often comes to class with unfulfilled lessons.
- d) The older brother does not want to share sweets with

the younger.

- e) The student is very worried before exams.
- f) An employee does not like being publicly praised by his superiors.
- g) In the company of friends, he is always in the spotlight.
- h) The ridicule of friends makes the boy cry.
- i) The young man makes every effort to get to international competitions.
- j) In dangerous situations, a person panics.
- k) Doesn't like to be alone.

CAPABILITIES

№ 1 Write out words that denote temperament, character, abilities. Industriousness, perseverance, musicality, creative imagination, resourcefulness, quick wit, mediocrity, observation, eloquence, talent, extroversion, depth of feelings, richness of facial expressions, cheerfulness, rigidity, ingenuity, quick attention switching, adherence to principles, perseverance, initiative, exactingness, conceit, carelessness, will, determination, optimism, genius, impressionability, quickness of thinking, strength of emotional reaction, slowness.

№ 2 Compare these statements and determine which of them can be accepted in full, which with a reservation, and which should be rejected.

a) "Every person is potentially a genius, but only in one area of science or art, it is only important to find oneself in it, and therefore only chance can help."

b) "Genius, as a separate mental quality, does not exist, what distinguishes a genius from an average person is not the presence of some unique features, but the enhanced development of some while others remain unchanged and, possibly, the suppression of others.

c) "I don't believe in natural talent. In my opinion, there

is only one talent: the ability to do everything with love for him.

№ 3 Is this answer applicable to any other specialty? "To the question: "Can one become a mathematician or do they need to be born?" we would answer like this: "You can become an ordinary mathematician; an outstanding, talented mathematician needs to be born.

№ 4 Define your point of view on the issue raised.

a) K. Helvetius: "All people with an ordinary normal organization have the same mental abilities."

b) D. Diderot: "Mr. Helvetius, answer a small question. Here are five hundred newly born children, they are ready to be given to you to be brought up according to your system; tell me how many of them will you make brilliant people? Why not all five hundred?"

AGE-RELATED PSYCHOLOGY

Are you assertive? (cited by V. Kapponi, T. Novak Psychologist himself. - St. Petersburg, 1994)

"Assertive training is the training of self-confidence, the training of confident behavior ... Self-confidence is understood as the ability of an individual to put forward and implement their own goals, needs, desires, claims, interests, feelings, etc. in relation to their environment ... "(Psychotherapeutic Encyclopedia, 1998)

The confident behavior of a doctor during treatment, as a rule, causes respect from the patient, who is often in a state of confusion, uncertainty, fear and anxiety due to the disease.

Instructions: Circle the answers you have chosen in the following positions:

- | | | |
|--|-----|----|
| 01. I get annoyed by other people's mistakes | Yes | No |
| 02. I can remind a friend of a debt | Yes | No |
| 03. From time to time I tell a lie | Yes | No |
| 04. I am able to take care of myself | Yes | No |
| 05. I happened to ride "hare" | Yes | No |

06. Rivalry is better than cooperation	Yes	No
07. I often torture myself over trifles	Yes	No
08. I am an independent and quite decisive person	Yes	No
09. I love everyone I know	Yes	No
10. I believe in myself. I have enough strength to deal with the current problems	Yes	No
11. Othing can be done, a person must always be on the alert in order to be able to protect their interests	Yes	No
12. I never laugh at dirty jokes.	Yes	No
13. I respect and admire authorities	Yes	No
14. I will not let anyone twist ropes out of me. I will protest.	Yes	No
15. I support every good undertaking	Yes	No
16. I never lie	Yes	No
17. I am a practical person	Yes	No
18. The mere fact that I can fail depresses me.	Yes	No
19. I agree with the saying: "First of all, look for a helping hand at your own shoulder"	Yes	No
20. Friends have a big influence on me.	Yes	No
21. I am always right, even if others think otherwise.	Yes	No
22. I agree that the important thing is not to win, but to participate	Yes	No
23. Before I do anything, I think carefully about how others will perceive it.	Yes	No
24. I never envy anyone	Yes	No

EMOTIONS AND FEELINGS

"I began to experience earlier than to think."

Jean Jacques Rousseau "Confession"

No1 Determine what influence (regulatory, stimulating or disorganizing) the feelings had on the activity.

A. English lesson. The children brought a crow to class.

Young teacher N. climbed onto the windowsill to catch the bird and release it. At this time, the teacher Melnikov looks into the classroom. He sharply scolds N.. Embarrassed, upset, she runs out into the corridor to explain to her teacher, a loved one, the essence of what is happening. But he is cold and strict. Then

N. returns to the classroom, grabs the crow, which one of the guys wrapped in a rag. And so, in a rag, he throws a helpless bird out the window. The excited and indignant guys are rude to the teacher. One by one, she kicks them out the door.

B. An unfortunate feeling of own lack of will arises in those cases when you retreat in the face of difficulties. In these cases, one has only to ruthlessly and sincerely call oneself a rag, a worthless person, as a feeling of offended pride wakes up. With such "anger" and annoyance, you take on the work that you do not recognize yourself.

C. A group of kids climbed onto a boat pier. An adult imperceptibly approached them and shouted loudly: "What are you doing here, mischievous people?". The guys rushed into the loose before they had time to think that they had done nothing wrong. But not all the guys ran away, one of them sat down on the ground and cried. And one of the guys frowned, clenched his fists and went to an adult to clarify the situation, although he was also scared.

D. Stalevar, 41, is in a difficult state due to the death of his only 18-year-old daughter. Previously, he was very fond of his profession, distinguished by a conscious and responsible attitude to work. During the war, he worked with high productivity, two or three shifts without leaving the shop. Now the work is painful for him, he complains of extreme fatigue, wants to switch to disability.

№ 2 Determine which category of emotional phenomena (mood, affect, emotions, feeling, stress, frustration, depression, etc.) the experience described in each example belongs to. By what signs can this be established?

A. Having received an own goal, the players became unrecognizable - where did their enthusiasm and obsession go.

B. During the entrance exam in mathematics, a strong student, an excellent student, cannot cope with a simple task. He says that he has some strange condition; forgot everything.

B. A 6th grade student says that when he is very upset, he always starts talking rudely to everyone. Anger so captures him that he wants to pour it out on others. Because of this, quarrels, fights and all sorts of misunderstandings arise. He later regrets what happened and repents.

C. A conscientious and diligent student was asked by the teacher. At that moment, the principal of the school entered the classroom. The girl was taken aback and immediately fell silent. Answered questions promptly. It looked like she didn't know her lesson. After the director left the classroom, the girl answered briskly and confidently on the material that she had unsuccessfully tried to reproduce earlier.

D. When learning to skydive, some beginners do not find the strength to leave the aircraft. Others can only be forced by repeated orders to take a step overboard. Fear and excitement do not leave them when the silk dome of the parachute opens over them, they lose the ability to perceive what is happening and cannot make a single reasonable action. Sometimes this state is not overcome and you have to part with the idea of jumping.

E. Countess Rostova, after receiving the news of the death of her son Petya, lay on an armchair, protruding strangely awkwardly, and banged her head against the wall ... "She screamed at Natasha, pushing those around her away from her. "Get off everyone, it's not true! Killed! .. Ha-ha-ha-ha! .. not true!

F. It was noted that by the end of the flight of the Apollo 7 spacecraft, the astronauts were increasingly irritable and impatient. They sometimes began to get into an argument with the operators of ground observation stations. The matter ended with the astronauts taking off their biosensors. Cosmonaut Eizel re-

fused to even discuss the incident with the flight directors and accused the ground center of saying "beautiful words" to the astronauts about the equipment, although it was no good.

G. In an emergency, the operator Ch. has rapid blinking, dry mouth, increased motor activity, voice tension, blocking of the perception process: Ch. He listens and does not hear, looks and does not see. The volume of perception is narrow, instrument readings are perceived with errors, mental activity is noticeably difficult. The instruction on a certain procedure is violated. Sensory and motor distractions are observed: the operator looks out the window, moves from place to place, gives an alarm unnecessarily. All this leads to the loss of a number of necessary operations and directly erroneous actions.

H. Under the conditions of an unsolved problem, the subject's motor activity increased excessively. Throughout the experiment he whistled, hummed, tapped the table with his fingers, and rubbed his hands and face. Movements, previously cautious and precise, became strong and sweeping. The subject became unusually talkative: he reacted sharply negatively to the sound signal for an error. Difficulties expressed aloud. At the end of the experiment, shortness of breath appeared. But the conscious control over the course of the activity was not violated. The subject used logical calculations in determining the mistakes made.

I. At the beginning of the task, the subject forgot to do one of the essential auxiliary actions, then an error occurred - the missing actions. The subject forgot the sequence of actions that had been well mastered before, and often allowed actions that were inadequate to trigger signals. In the process of work, he sat in a constrained pose, bowing his head low to the table or even lowering it to his knees. Conscious control was broken. After the experiment, he looked long and aimlessly at his notebook, not understanding why he was doing this.

№ 3 Determine the types of feelings.

A. "I melted and trembled with inexpressible pleasure when I wrote music for Onegin." (From a letter by P.I. Tchaikovsky).

B. After much effort, the student succeeded in solving a difficult problem, which led him to a state of delight.

C. The head boy was completely depressed that the guys called him a "traitor" because he told the class teacher who broke the glass.

D. A student of the X grade writes that she read "The Gadfly" at the age of

15. The book had a tremendous effect on her, and the girl walked for three days under a strong impression.

№ 4 Give a psychological justification for the following fact.

"Somehow in the boiler room ... scaffolding broke out, doused with diesel fuel and oil. Everyone was confused. Someone remembered that two cylinders with oxygen were left on the scaffolding - and in an instant everyone rushed in all directions. Cylinders will explode - they will smash our boiler room to smithereens. And then the worker Ramaz Gulashvili rushed into the fire. A minute later, he emerged from the fire with the cylinders already warmed up. When the fire was extinguished, we say: "Zhora, come on, raise the cylinders again!" So he barely lifted one."

№ 5. Determine which functions of emotions are actualized in the following situations:

A. When going on a first date in her life, the girl is very worried. Her hands are trembling as she puts her hair back into her hairdo, and her heart is beating fast.

B. An unprepared student was so afraid of being asked that he was unable to respond to the funny stories that his classmate told him.

C. From fear at the sight of a rapidly approaching dog, the girl could not only move, but even shout to call for help.

D. Hearing her favorite melody coming from the receiver, the girl put the book aside for a while and hurried to turn up the sound.

E. Having finally received consent from his girlfriend to the proposal to become his wife, the young man felt so happy that he did not even notice how it started to rain.

F. Angry at her beloved cat for ruining the upholstery on a new sofa, the owner spanked him.

G. Hearing a compliment addressed to her from a friend of her elder brother, the girl was embarrassed, and a blush appeared on her cheeks.

H. For a whole week, a young employee was preparing for a report at an important meeting, but when he was given the floor, he suddenly realized that he had forgotten everything.

I. After watching a film about "beautiful" love, the girl imagined herself in the place of the heroine.

J. After a serious quarrel with a friend, the girl lost her appetite, and after a week she looked pretty haggard and thinner.

№ 6. List the feelings you know and classify them into groups (intellectual, moral and aesthetic).

№ 7. What is the most appropriate behavior if a person is in a state of anger?

№ 8 Describe how a girl might express or contain her anger in the following situation.

Dasha worked tirelessly for two months on her term paper in physics. An unfortunate accident prevented her from turning in her work on time. And now her teacher refuses to grade her, citing the fact that the work was submitted one day late. Dasha feels her face turn purple with anger, and her heart begins to pound violently.

A. Direct expression of anger: ___

B. Indirect expression of anger: _

B. Controlling anger: ____

WILL

№ 1 From these concepts, construct a series so that the previous concept is more general in relation to the subsequent ones.

Courage, consciousness, will, reflection, courage, psyche.

№ 2 On the basis of these quotes, highlight the concepts that reveal the nature of the will.

A. "Everything that induces a person to activity should go through his head: even for food and drink, a person is taken due to the fact that sensations of hunger and thirst are reflected in his head, and he stops eating and drinking due to what is reflected in his head. feeling of satiety. The influence of the outside world on a person is imprinted in his head, reflected in it in the form of feelings, thoughts, impulses, manifestations of the will, in a word - in the idea of "ideal aspirations", and in this form they become "ideal forces".

B. "Volitional manifestations are a product of the systemic work of the brain, in which the leading role is played by "second-signal control impulses of a tonic and inhibitory nature."

C. "The will is not some kind of impersonal agent that controls only movement, it is the active side of reason and moral feeling. Controlling the movement in the name of one or the other, and often in defiance of even a sense of self-preservation.

№ 3 Choose a teacher's line of conduct that will help mobilize the student's will for further work.

A. The teacher addresses the student: "Do you understand what you are saying?" She is silent, then says: "I understand," looking down at him. Teacher: You don't understand anything. Sit down." (Laughter in class.)

B. The student who received threes all the time perfectly prepared the next lesson and received "5". "Something happened to our Ben," the teacher turned to the class with comic anxiety in his voice. "I have to give him a five."

C. "Can't you, Ben, answer every lesson as well as today? Can't you be an excellent student with us? How can you not be

ashamed?"

D. "Today your answer does not satisfy me. You, apparently, did not work enough, try to fix the matter, you can do it.

COGNITIVE PROCESSES ATTENTION

№ 1 Study of attention.

The purpose of the study: to determine the level of attention.

Material and equipment: Pierson-Ruser test form, pencil and stopwatch.

Research procedure.

The study can be conducted with one subject or with a group of 5-9 people. The main conditions when working with a group are to conveniently place the subjects, provide each with test forms, pencils, and monitor silence during the testing process.

Test subject instructions:

"You are offered a test with a square, a triangle, a circle and a rhombus depicted on it. At the "Start" signal, place the following signs in these geometric shapes as quickly as possible and without errors: in a square - plus, in a triangle - minus, in a circle - nothing put a dot in the rhombus. Arrange the signs in a row line by line. The time for work is 60 seconds. When I say Stop! Stop placing the signs.

The experimenter during the study controls the time with a stopwatch and gives the command "Start!" and "Stop!" The reliability of the results of the study is achieved by repeated testing, which is best done at significant intervals of time. Processing and analysis of results.

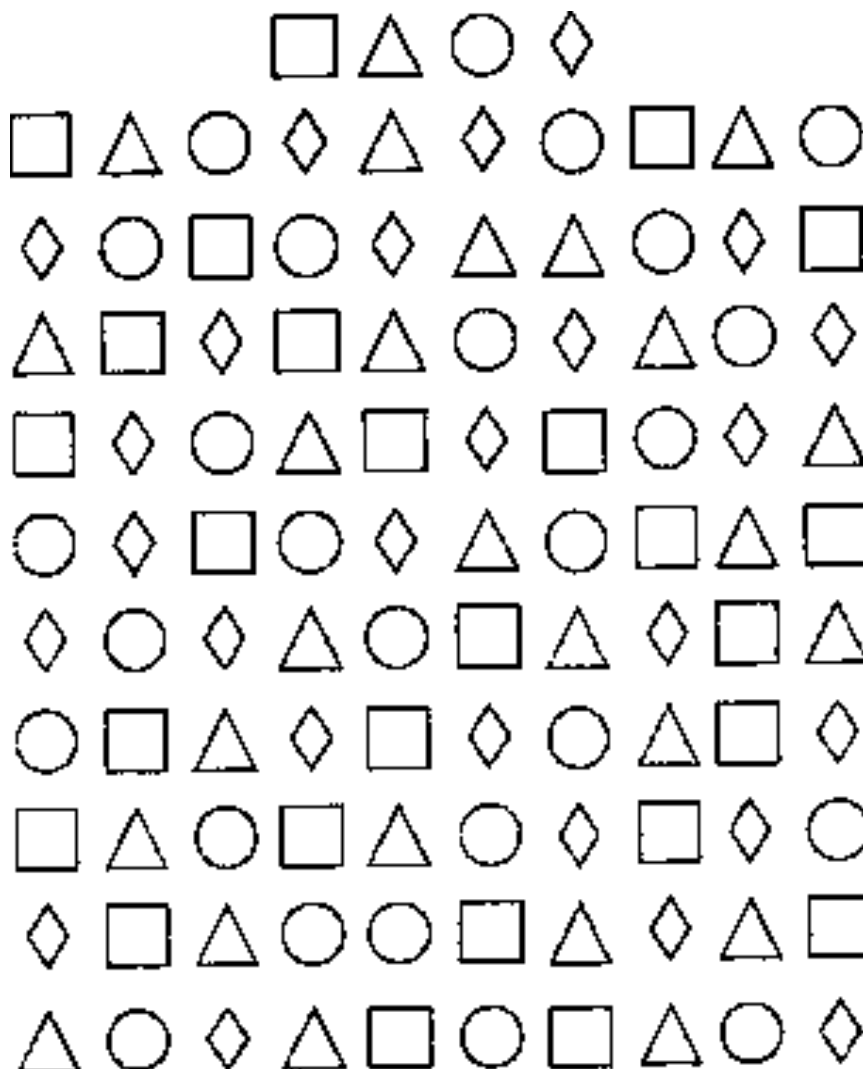
The results of this testing are: the number of geometric shapes processed by the subject for 60 seconds, counting the circle, and the number of errors made. The level of concentration of attention is determined by the table.

Number of processed figures	Rank	Attention level
100	1	very tall
91-99	2	high
80-90 65-79	3 4	medium low
64 and less	5	very low

For mistakes made during the task, the rank is reduced. If errors 1-2. Then the rank is reduced by one, if 3-4 - by two ranks, the concentration of attention is considered worse, and if there are more than 4 errors, then - by three ranks.

Form with geometric shapes of the Pierson-Ruser test: Subject: _____ Date _____ Experimenter: _____ Time _____

Test



When analyzing the results, it is necessary to establish the reasons for these results. Among them, the installation, the willingness of the subject to follow the instructions and process the figures by placing signs in them as soon as possible, or his orientation on the accuracy of filling out the test, is of great importance. In some cases, the indicator of concentration of attention may be lower than possible due to too much desire of a person to show his abilities, to achieve the maximum result (that is, a kind of competition). The reason for the decrease in concentration can also be a state of fatigue, poor eyesight, illness.

Study of the properties of perception.

№ 3 What is the physiological mechanism of the phenomenon described below? What is this phenomenon called?

Subjects who were instructed to look at a white screen set up in a dark room had their night vision threshold measured. During the experiment, the experimenter gave the instruction: "Attention! Watch with maximum tension! It turned out that after such instructions, the sensitivity of night vision increased.

№ 4 Parable

"Magaraja chose a minister for himself. He will take the one who walks along the wall around the city with a large vessel filled to the brim with milk and does not spill a drop. Many walked, and along the way they were hailed, frightened, distracted, and they spilled. "These are not ministers," said the Maharaja. But here comes one. Neither screams, nor frights, nor cunning distracted his eyes from the overflowing vessel. "Shoot!" the master shouted. They shot, but that didn't help either. "It's the minister!" said the Maharaja. "Did you hear the screams?" he asked him. "No!" "Did you see how they scared you?" - "No I was looking at milk." "Did you hear the shots?" - "No lord! I was looking at milk."

- What are we talking about? Why? Refine your answer.

№ 5 Determine what properties of students' attention these

psychological and pedagogical recommendations are focused on.

1. The teacher should ask him questions more often during the lesson so that he is less distracted by extraneous matters.

2. For greater efficiency in the work of this student, shortly before the planned transition to another type of task, the teacher must necessarily warn the boy about this personally 2-3 times.

3. Parents do not have to worry too much about the fact that their daughter does not have a separate room where she could prepare lessons in the evenings and nothing would distract her.

4. If there are such children in the class, the teacher should write assignments on the board (numbers of exercises, tasks, etc.).

5. In order for such a child to successfully cope with the preparation for lessons, parents should limit distractions to a minimum (do not turn on the TV, radio, tape recorder at this moment, do not talk loudly, etc.).

6. The teacher can no doubt ask this student to complete written assignments with comments.

7. In the event that such a child needs to complete a large learning task, it is advisable for the teacher to break it into separate parts and suggest their consistent implementation, while periodically monitoring the progress of each part, making the necessary adjustments.

8. To achieve the best productivity of the student's work, the teacher should not give him several tasks at once.

9. Parents should not yell at a child if, having finished solving a math problem, he cannot understand the essence of the task in Russian.

10. Parents may well allow their daughter to make appliqué, embroider or sew, draw while watching or listening to children's programs on TV or radio.

11. In order for the mother to be sure that everything is in order at home, she should not trust such a child to watch the dinner being prepared.

12. The teacher can involve him in checking the written homework of classmates.

13. The teacher should be more persistent in asking such students to check the text of the dictation after it has been written.

14. In order for such a student to successfully cope with the analysis of the problem, the teacher must give him the opportunity to read its text several times beforehand.

15. The teacher should not ask such a student at the very beginning of the lesson, especially if the previous lesson was physical education.

SENSATIONS

№ 1 Based on the experiments described, draw a conclusion about whether muscle sensations are necessary and sufficient for spatial orientation.

A. A child of 2-3 years old was blindfolded with a handkerchief, taken to some corner of the room, escorted back in the same way and asked to repeat the path with closed eyes. The children successfully solved this problem.

B. A blindfolded child of 2-3 years old was put on a chair, carried to the right or left for a certain distance, returned to the old place, and then asked to go where they carried him. The children coped with this task both with their eyes open and with their eyes closed.

№ 2 In the study of pitch hearing, it was found that the sensitivity to small pitch differences in pianists and violinists is not the same. Who is more sensitive? What explains this difference in the level of pitch sensitivity?

№ 3 What pattern of sensations is manifested in each example? A. Having been in the room, the person soon ceased to

feel the smell of burning, although the newly entered person clearly felt it.

B. A. N. Skryabin and N. A. Rimsky-Korsakov had color hearing, i.e. heard sounds painted in different colors.

C. Orientation of the deaf-blind in the world around is based primarily on tactile, olfactory, motor and vibrational sensations.

D. When wiping the face with cold water, the pilot-observer's visual acuity increased.

E. With increased lighting in the hall, the sounds rushing from the stage began to seem louder to the audience. Below, under the corresponding numbers, answers to the question posed to the problem are given.

Choose the answer number in which all phenomena are indicated correctly.

a) changes in smell, b) interaction of analyzers, c) sensitization, d) sensitization, e) synesthesia.

a) adaptation, b) synesthesia, c) specific sensory organization, d) sensitization, e) sensitization.

a) adaptation, b) specificity of absolute hearing, c) sensitivity training, d) sensitization, e) synesthesia.

№ 4 What do these examples have in common? What pattern of sensations are we talking about here?

A. Entering a dark room, the child pronounces the word "dark" usually in a lower voice. The name of small objects is usually pronounced by children in a higher voice than the names of large things.

B. We often use and understand well the meaning of such expressions: "flashy colors", "sharp tastes", "sweet sounds", "heavy colors", "lush music", "flat sound", "sour smell", "cold color" paintings", etc.

№ 5 What pattern explains the change in visual acuity?

Visual acuity was tested in preschool children. They had to recognize the displayed figures from different distances. Then

the children had to recognize the same figures in the conditions of the game "hunter" in order to find the location of the animals from them. In the game, the children showed great visual acuity.

PERCEPTION

№ 1 Which sensory process does each of these facts refer to? What explains the difference in the reflection of the figure at different durations of perception?

A. When the figure is presented for 0.005 seconds, the subject says: "Something flashed before my eyes";

B. If the display of the figure lasts 0.05 seconds, the subject notices: "I saw something bright";

C. B. If the demonstration lasts 0.5 seconds, the subject will recognize the shape of the figure.

№ 2 On what pattern of perception does the described ability of a person depend? Can a modern electronic machine have such an ability? A person can instantly recognize any shape, such as a square, whether it is large or small, whether it is vertical or at an angle, whether it is drawn in white on a black background or black on a white background, or simply outlined. Moreover, a person recognizes a square even if the paper on which it is applied is tilted so that the image falling on the retina looks like a parallelogram.

№ 3 The drawing of a three-year-old child schematically depicts a person: the nose and ears are missing, and the highlighted mouth and tongue are depicted outside the face, and the tongue, moreover, outside the mouth. What lack of children's perception is manifested in this case?

№ 4 What important feature of human perception is manifested in the responses of a normal child and is absent in a child with a mental disorder? If you show a child an ink stain spread on paper and ask him: "What do you see? What is it? ", - then the answers are usually of the following kind: "This is some kind of bird, here are the wings", "These are two dogs met",

“This is an aunt, she has a long nose”, etc. If such a question is asked to the patient, then most often he will answer: “blot”, “spot”.

№ 5 Indicate, based on the study described, what role eye movement plays in complex visual perception. The study showed that when considering an object, the eye never remains at rest: it makes jerky movements, stopping at individual details of the perceived image and fixing them, and then moving on to the next details. If a person examines a portrait, his gaze jumps over the individual parts of this portrait, highlighting those details that carry the maximum information.

№ 6 How to organize an excursion for older students to the park in winter (autumn) in order to create the best conditions for observation? Choose the number (see at the end of the problem) in which all answers are correct.

- a) bring children to the park and organize an outdoor game;
 - b) read a poem by A.S. Pushkin "Autumn";
 - c) explain to the children in advance that they should notice the differences between the autumn and winter parks;
 - d) warn them in advance so that they carefully consider everything that they meet in the park;
 - e) before the tour, explain to the children what changes in the park they should pay attention to;
 - f) warn that after the tour they will have to draw trees in autumn (winter) and summer; g) offer to collect fallen leaves and arrange them according to the types of trees.
- a, c, d; b, c, d; c, e, g; c, e, f; g, d, f.

№ 7. The following experiment is an example of a fundamental causal attribution error. Imagine that you were offered for 1,500 rubles to walk with a Coca-Cola advertising poster along the main street of your city for 2 hours. Would you agree? Now suppose that the entire population of your city from 18 to 60 years old is 100%. How many percent of them do you think

would accept a similar offer? See if you are in the majority (remember that 50% is the majority). The experience of conducting this experiment, obtained on modern Russian citizens, shows that, with rare exceptions, people consider themselves to be in the majority.

№ 8. What effect of perception can be attributed to the description of this experiment? Young people were asked to evaluate the female handwriting, and a female portrait was attached to the text. In some groups of subjects, a portrait of a woman with an attractive appearance was used, while in others, a portrait of an "ugly girl" was used. The handwriting of a beautiful woman received higher marks.

№ 9. What kinds of stereotypes are discussed in the studies of the American scientist Secord? People with similar facial features really turned out to be similar to each other and in terms of personal characteristics.

№ 10. To what effect of perception can a quote from L. N. Tolstoy's "Kreutzer Sonata" be attributed? "It's amazing how complete the illusion is that beauty is good. A beautiful woman says stupid things, you listen and don't hear stupid things, but you hear smart things. She talks, she does nasty things, and you see something cute. When she does not say anything stupid or nasty, but beautifully, then now you are sure that she is a miracle how smart and moral.

№ 11. Recall from your life the cases when the first impression of a person turned out to be wrong for you? What did you feel when you realized this? What contributed to the creation of misperceptions? How did you realize its fallacy? What errors might have been?

№ 12. Write on a piece of paper in a column the names of 5 people that you like, you are cute, but not by external signs, but by personality traits, these should not be relatives. Then for each of them (in a column) write down the qualities (4-6) that characterize him as a person.

Then do the same work with people you don't like, you don't like. Conclusion. You will notice that the qualities in the first table will be repeated; the same is observed, as a rule, when filling out the second table. What underlies this phenomenon?

№ 13. What factors of people's perception of each other does N.V. Gogol mean? "It is impossible to count all the shades and subtleties of our appeal. A Frenchman or a German does not know for a century and will not understand all his peculiarities and differences: he will speak with almost the same voice and the same language with a millionaire and with a petty tobacco dealer, although, of course, in his soul he will scoff in moderation before the first. It's not the same with us: we have such wise men who will speak with a landowner who has two hundred souls in a completely different way than with one who has three hundred of them, will again speak not like with one who has five hundred, but with the one who has five hundred of them is again not the same as with the one who has eight hundred of them, even if you go up to a million, all shades will be found.

№ 14. Alexandre Dumas, in his book about a trip to Russia, tells the following story about an incident that happened to Emperor Alexander I.

"Once, arriving in a Little Russian village, dressed in a military frock coat, without any external insignia that would indicate his rank, Alexander got out of the carriage and, while the horses were harnessed, walked up a low hill, at the top of which the road forked. There stood a small house, the last one in this village and at the threshold of the house sat, smoking, a man dressed in an overcoat, reminiscent of the attire of an emperor.

- Buddy, - Alexander asked, using the word that the interlocutors usually use in a conversation on an equal footing, - which of these roads do you need to go to get to ...?

The man with the pipe looked at the emperor from head to toe, surprised that some traveler allowed himself to address a man of his rank so familiarly, and carelessly, pointing to one of

the roads with his hand, said:

- This one, my dear.

The emperor realized that he had made a mistake, too unceremoniously addressing such an important person as his interlocutor looked like.

"Excuse me, sir," he said, approaching him and raising his hand to his cap, "will you allow me one more question?"

- Well, like this? Which? the smoker asked contemptuously. "Let me ask you, what is your rank?"

Guess.

- It must be, sir - a lieutenant?

- Take it higher.

- Captain?

- Higher.

- Major?

- Let's move on...

- Lieutenant Colonel?

- Now to the point.

The emperor bowed.

"Now it's my turn," the man said, puffing on his pipe. - Excuse me, who are you?

"Guess," said the Emperor.

- Lieutenant?

- Higher.

- Captain?

- Higher.

- Major?

- Further, further...

- Lieutenant Colonel?

- Past...

The smoker got up. - Colonel? - Didn't guess.

The man took the pipe out of his mouth and assumed a respectful posture. "You're Excellency, so Lieutenant General?"

- Already closer.

Maybe a field marshal?

"Another effort, Lieutenant Colonel, and you'll guess right.

"His Imperial Majesty!" - the lieutenant colonel exclaimed, dropping his pipe from his mouth, which, falling to the ground, shattered into pieces ... " Explain what factor prevented the smoker from recognizing the emperor according to the stereotyping scheme: a) attractiveness factor; b) the factor of attitude towards us; c) superiority factor.

№ 15. Study of the perception of time.

The purpose of the study: to determine the degree of accuracy of perception of short periods of time.

Equipment: stopwatch and research protocol table.

Research procedure

The study of time perception is carried out in pairs, consisting of the subject and the experimenter. It consists of ten experiments. In each experiment, the subject is asked to determine a given period of time, not counting and not looking at the clock. The experimenter determines the correctness of the estimate of the time interval using a stopwatch. Time intervals can be set as follows: 30 s, 1 min, 120 s, etc.

Instruction to the subject: "You will be asked, without using the clock and not counting to yourself, raising your hand or signaling "Stop!", to determine the end of the specified period of time. Each time you will be told how long the interval is set, and the experimenter will mark its beginning with a blow pencil on the table.

In the protocol table, the experimenter writes down the time interval specified for the determination and the actual time that the subject took for the specified interval.

The time interval proposed for evaluation is noted in the column of the table "C" in seconds; actual time, also in seconds, in column "A".

Table-protocol for the study of perception of short periods of time:

Time "C"	estimation interval	Actual time "A"
-------------	------------------------	--------------------

30c 60c 120c

Results processing

The accuracy of time estimation is determined for each experiment separately by the formula:

$$CA = A / C \times 100$$

CA is the coefficient of time estimation accuracy;

A - the actual time interval that has elapsed since the start of the assessment by the subjects of a given period of time;

C is the time interval proposed for evaluation.

Analysis of results

In the course of analyzing the results of the study, it is important to determine in what ratio to 100%, less or more, are the coefficients of accuracy in estimating the time of the subject. If in all experiments the subject has a coefficient greater than 100%, then he underestimates the time intervals. If its coefficients are less than 100%, then it overestimates the time intervals. The closer the coefficients are to 100% (for example, 80% - 110%), the higher the accuracy of estimating short periods of time.

People differ in the typology of time interval estimation. Some subjects exaggerate them, while others downplay them. In some cases, this typology extends to long time intervals. However, some subjects overestimate short time intervals (up to a minute), and, on the contrary, underestimate intervals longer than a minute.

In order to establish the causes of underestimation or overestimation of time intervals, we advise you to repeat the experiments, complicating them with instructions with additional instructions. For example to determine a given time interval, while listing the letters of the alphabet. The introduction by the instruction of another goal of the activity changes the assessment of the time intervals by the subjects. Time in this case for the

subject becomes, as a rule, less noticeable, that is, they, doing something else, underestimate it. Recommendations on the possible use of the results for the purpose of self-improvement of the subject.

Knowing the features of perception and evaluation of time intervals, it is possible to develop a system of techniques that will be useful in moments of forced waiting: waiting for vehicles, events, meetings, etc. The mental stress that is removed at the same time is one of the moments of self-education and self-regulation training.

MEMORY

№ 1 The actions of a person characterizing various memory processes are described below. Determine which memory process (imprinting, preserving, reproducing, recognizing) is manifested in the described actions

A. The student was asked the question: "In what year was the novel by I.S. Turgenev "On the eve?" The student, after thinking, began to answer: "About the novel "On the Eve" at one time, heated disputes flared up in the editorial office of the magazine. Moreover, Dobrolyubov's article "When will the real day come?" just served as a pretext for a split in the editorial office of magazine. When was it? It was a year of great political tension, when the literary struggle was also very acute, the year on the eve of the peasant reform of 1861. Therefore, the novel "On the Eve" was published in 1860.

B. Well-known mnemonist Sh. He had an outstanding memory. Once he was given an artificial and meaningless complex mathematical formula. Sh. Carefully looks at the table with the formula and several times raises it to his eyes, lowers it and walks with his eyes closed, then returns the table, pauses, internally looking through the "remembered".

Q. Sometimes on a busy street one can observe such a scene: one passerby, having carefully looked at another, joyfully

rushes to meet him. -You? It is you?! - I'm sorry I don't think I know you. Where did we meet? Do you remember, in such and such a year, in such and such a city? -A! So you.....

D. The student presents the history material assigned a week ago and reproduces 70% of the textbook content. Interviewed a month later on the same issue, he reproduces only 40%. D. At the exam in mathematics, student K. for a long time could not reproduce the necessary formula. As soon as the teacher showed the young man only part of the formula, K. unmistakably determined: "This is Newton's binomial formula."

№ 2 What pattern of memorization can explain the following facts?

A. In the tenth grade, they began to study a new subject - astronomy. Several days passed, and three students approached the teacher and began to complain that they had a bad memory, they did not remember material from the textbook well. The teacher asked: "By the way, who played at Liverpool the year before last instead of Mohamed Salah?" The guys called the name of the football player. Then they listed many names of players from various domestic and foreign teams.

B. Student L., who knows little about literature and confuses the heroes of classic novels, easily lists the names of movie stars and can characterize the images that they created on the screen.

№ 3 We studied the productivity of different methods of memorizing a complex of gymnastic exercises. Determine in which group of subjects memorization was more effective and why. One group of subjects memorized the movements in the usual way (watched and reproduced). The second group verbally labeled and recorded each set of exercises before reproducing it. The third group had to come up with a movement similar in structure before playing.

№ 4 What type and conditions of memorization were found in this experiment? The subjects (children and adults)

were given 15 cards with an image of an object on each of them. It was necessary to classify these items according to specific characteristics into four groups. In addition to the image, a number was written in black ink on each card in the upper right corner. Results of reproduction (in%)

Objects of memorization	Grade 2	Grade 4	Grade 6	Grade 7	Adults	Subjects
10.3	10.6	12.9	13.0	13.2	Numbers	

2.0 1.9 0.9 1.6 1.4 After When completing the task, the subjects were asked to recall the objects and numbers depicted on the cards. The results of the experiment are shown in the table.

№ 5 Which group of schoolchildren needed fewer repetitions to accurately reproduce the entire poem? What is this pattern of repetition called?

One group of 4th grade students memorized a poem, continuously repeating it until it was completely verbatim. Another group of students memorized the same poem, distributing the repetition: every day the poem was read twice, until complete memorization.

№ 6 To which group of subjects do the numerical data of the experiments, characterizing a more complete and stronger memorization, belong? One group of students was asked to memorize the content of the text by reading four times in a row, the other - alternating double reading and double reproduction. It turned out that the completeness and strength of memorization in these groups are not the same. An hour after memorization in one of the groups, the material was retained by memory by 75%, and in the other - by 52%, ten days later - by 72% and 25%, respectively.

№ 7 Which of these phenomena can be attributed to memory, and which to representations? Experience, recognition, dream, forgetting, recollection, preservation, goal, image reproduction, traces, stimuli, foresight, creativity, anticipatory reflection, dreams, image reconstruction, recollection, information imprinting, generalized sensory image, illusion, memorization,

fantasy, model of the future, story about the past, ideal, hypothesis, imagination, hallucination, reminiscence, verbal portrait

№ 8 From these concepts, build a logical series so that each previous concept is more general in relation to the next one.

- a) psyche, memory, reflection, cognitive process, verbal-logical memory;
- b) representation, reflection, sensory image, psyche, cognitive process, figurative memory.

IMAGINATION

№ 1 From these concepts, construct a logical series so that each previous concept is more general in relation to the previous one:

- a) imagination, dream, psyche, creative imagination, reflection, new images;
- b) dreams, psyche, deliberate imagination, reflection, imagination, passive imagination.

№ 2 Analyze the text, determine what kind of reflection is inherent in the imagination? What is its main function? "Every creation of a new, transformation of reality in practice is necessarily preceded by a mental, figurative transformation, the creation of representations of the imagination. A person first creates the idea of a thing, its image, then the thing itself. It is in the presence of imagination, in the ability to present the expected result of work with the help of fantasy, that the fundamental difference between human labor and the instinctive activity of animals lies.

№ 3 On the basis of these statements, reveal the reflective nature of the imagination, show its place and role in the cognition of creative activity.

- a) "... In the simplest generalization, in the most elementary general idea, there is a certain piece of fantasy."
- b) "Fantastic ideas are taken from reality, and the most correct ideas about reality are of necessity enlivened by the

breath of fantasy."

c) For creativity, "it is necessary to provide more scope for personal initiative, individual inclinations, scope for thought and fantasy."

d) "As a psychological factor, fantasy is something more akin, close to imagination. From the logical side, it is close to a guess, to a hypothesis. In both senses, fantasy plays a very significant role in every scientific discovery and in general in any scientific creativity.

№ 4 In the center of a blank sheet of paper, draw a circle with a diameter of 2 centimeters, and then draw something on its basis for 3 minutes. Highlight the main features of this task. Transform it in such a way that it actualizes figurative thinking. Evaluate how complex and original the drawing turned out. Try to determine what techniques were used by you.

№ 5 Give examples illustrating different functions of the imagination: goal-setting, planning, creation of objects of material and spiritual culture, mental self-regulation, self-regulation of physiological processes, communication, interpersonal understanding, learning subjects.

Task 4. Indicate what methods of creating images were used in the following cases.

1. Mermaid.
2. Gin.
3. Gulliver.
4. Maleficent.
5. Flying carpet.
6. Don Juan.
7. Pinocchio.
8. Cap of invisibility.
9. Fairy.
10. Friendly cartoon.
11. Spider man.
12. Self-assembled tablecloth.

13. Nightingale the Robber.

14. Caricature.

№ 6 Imagine your future professional activity and indicate what requirements it imposes on the imagination.

№ 7 Give a complete qualification of the imagination (the level of subjectivity (arbitrariness), uniqueness, motivation, modality and content), which is updated in the following situations.

1. Approaching the classroom door, the late student involuntarily imagined what the teacher's face would be like at the moment when he entered.

2. Looking at the notes, the musician "hears" the melody.

3. Shortly before demobilization from the army, a soldier constantly dreams about how he returns home.

4. The test pilot clearly imagines, as if from the outside, the position of the aircraft at the moment of performing a complex turn.

5. A hungry person is constantly haunted by the tastes and smells of food.

6. A person returning late takes the shadows of the trees for the figures of bandits, and terrible pictures appear in his head.

7. In a moment of danger in the mind of a person, his whole life can be clearly represented.

THINKING

№ 1 Highlight the main stages of solving the pedagogical problem. Label each stage with the appropriate psychological concept. Intern student V.K. at first she did not know what methods of pedagogical influence to apply to Sam, who violated discipline in the 7th grade. She began to look at the boy. The student learned from the class teacher that he was a poor student (especially in geometry and physics). It became known that, due to family circumstances, Sam had no time to prepare for lessons. It turned out that Sam lives far from the school. The boy was prevented from doing both abnormal relations between

his parents and excessive workload with household chores. At school, there was little interest in the boy's life outside of school hours. He often heard one thing: bad, incorrigible. This pissed off the child even more. The student trainee, having learned all the circumstances, comes to the conclusion that Sam needs an affectionate father's word, in showing kindness to him. She decided to build her approach to the boy on understanding his state of mind and show him attention, kindness, and care. The girl often approached him and, as if not noticing his mischief, tried to treat him kindly. To attract his attention, the student was preparing something new and interesting for the lesson. The boy was helped to study geometry and physics. Having learned that Sam draws well, she asked him to help publish a wall newspaper. The boy began to behave better. Sitting quietly in class. I listened carefully to the explanations. His performance improved.

№ 2 What mental operation is not sufficiently developed among schoolchildren, as a result of which they have errors in solving problems?

A. A child entering school is asked, "What is a bird?" He replies: "She is gray, small, has a nose and a mouth."

B. The child is given a task: "The boy had 3 sweets, he lost one. How many candies does he have left? Ignoring the question, the student says: "We must look for her and find her."

C. A special school child is given a set of pictures and asked to sort them into "what goes with what" groups. The child lays it out like this: puts clothes near the closet, a sailor - on a ship, combines a butterfly with flowers, etc.

№ 3 On the basis of experience, draw a conclusion about the psychological reasons that impede the solution of the problem in the second variant. What psychological conditions are necessary for the successful solution of the problem in the second variant? The subjects were asked to solve the problem of ingenuity. On the door it was necessary to fix three candles at the same level. Various objects lay on the table in front of the

subject: a hammer, gimlets, strings, cardboard boxes, nails, etc. To solve the problem, it was necessary to use nail boxes as a stand. The task was given in two versions. In the first version, the boxes were empty, in the second, they were filled with nails. In the first variant, all subjects used empty boxes as a stand. In the second variant, more than half of the subjects found it difficult to solve the problem, and only about 43% of the subjects guessed to free the boxes from nails and use them as candle holders.

№ 4 What general condition for the successful solution of the problem is violated? What is the general psychological cause of difficulty in solving a problem? Usually, the following simple problem from a series of puzzles is solved with great difficulty: draw three straight lines through four points, returning to the point where the movement began.

№ 5 Establish the psychological condition on which the change in the intellectual activity of the first grader depends. The reasons for the lagging behind of 1st grade students in arithmetic were investigated. These children could not solve the simplest problems they gave answers at random and very reluctantly. They gave the impression of incapable, apathetic, and sometimes even mentally retarded children. They were offered didactic games. It was possible to win only on the condition that: using the appropriate intellectual techniques correctly, solve the proposed learning problem. The children were delighted with the game. From the very first game, the researchers changed their minds about the subjects, who turned out to be cheerful, lively, quick-witted children, active and persistent, interested in all activities, in solving a problem, in their own gain. In fact, the game consisted in solving the same problems that children solved with displeasure in educational, non-play activities. When solving a problem in a game, all students began to use those methods of mental activity that they did not use at all in school classes. In the lessons without the game, the subjects gave

29% correct answers, and in the game - 88%.

№ 6 Mark the types of thinking in the given examples. State the characteristics of each type.

A. A student of grade VIII expressed his understanding of the poem by M.Y. Lermontov's "Cliff": "A cloud is a fleeting joy that has visited a person. She warmed him, left a good memory and flew away. And this person, after a fleeting joy, feels his loneliness even more sharply: all the joylessness of his existence.

B. First-graders were given one-color bricks and offered to lay out a third wall (connecting the first two) from a part of the bricks, looking at the previously laid out two walls. The second group, constructing the third, was deprived of the opportunity to compare their work with the first two walls. In the first group there were three times more students who correctly solved the problem than in the second group.

C. A student of grade X defines the sense of honor as follows: "A sense of honor is a feeling that makes a person maintains in the eyes of others his authority, prestige, reputation or authority, prestige and reputation of the team of which he is a member. This feeling makes you follow your worldview, communist convictions in all misdeeds, does not allow you to servility, commit dishonorable acts, humiliate and humiliate others. This feeling makes you strive for the impeccability of your actions, moral purity.

In our country, personal honor is inseparable from collective honor: the honor of a person is the honor of his team and vice versa.

№ 7 Using these concepts, formulate several scientific judgments about thinking: psyche, reflection, abstract, analysis, synthesis, essential, generalization, image, ideal, secondary, mediated, subjective, objective, material, reality, thinking, human, speech, world, things, properties.

№ 8 What prevented the guys from solving the problem

correctly? The students were given the task: to balance the candle on the scales so that this balance would be disturbed after a while. A range of items were offered that could be placed on another scale pan, including a box of matches. The students tried long and unsuccessfully to find a solution. And only the hint of the teacher helped the case.

№ 9 From the above judgments, choose the correct ones and justify your choice. a) thinking is always based on the data of sensory experience; b) thinking is a simple chain of associations flowing in the mind; c) thinking is a mediated and generalized reflection of reality, a type of mental activity, which consists in knowing the essence of things and phenomena, regular connections and relationships between them; d) thinking is the process of processing contemplation and ideas into concepts; e) thinking is a process of information processing; f) thought is the bio currents of the brain; g) "history of thought = history of language..."

COMMUNICATION

№ 1. Describe several communication situations that are familiar to you and analyze them: highlight the motive, goal, psychological characteristics of the partner and ways of interaction.

№ 2. In specific situations of communication, predict various options for interacting with people, depending on their individual characteristics.

№ 3. Determine the types of communication that are updated in the following situations. (There may be more than one answer.)

a) Once in a boring company, the guy tells funny stories and anecdotes.

b) Not finding his friend at home, the boy leaves a note with his neighbors asking him to call.

c) Noticing a friend walking on the other side of the

road, the girl smiled affably at her and waved her hand.

d) Approaching the bus stop, the man asked those around him how long the "six" had passed.

e) The mayor of the city addresses the townspeople on the radio with an appeal to take an active part in the subtonic.

№ 4. Read the sketches below. Use your knowledge of non-verbal communication and decipher what each of the characters wanted to say with their act.

a) Anna gathered her long blond hair into a tight knot at the back of her head, put on a formal pinstriped suit borrowed from her mother and black dress shoes, put the folders with documents in a briefcase and went to the interview.

b) After a family quarrel, Edward painted a portrait of his wife in black and gray. He hung the drawing on the mirror in front of her dressing table.

c) The boss praised Emma for her good work and patted her on the shoulder. The girl hastily pulled away.

d) Jane looked around the crowded beach and spread her towel a meter away from a handsome young man.

e) During the explanation of a new topic, two students are playing "Battleship" with passion. The teacher, noticing this, pauses in his story and looks intently at the guys.

№ 5. Choose the most optimal behavior strategies for each of these conflict situations (cooperation, compromise, avoidance, adaptation). Describe the specific actions of all possible participants in the conflict.

a) In their absence, the tenants from the upper floor had a burst pipe with hot water, as a result of which the two lower apartments, recently renovated by the owners, were flooded. The question arises, who will pay for the new repair?

b) Two firms occupy the same large premises and use the same telephone. At the end of each month, a dispute arises between their leaders over payment for rent and communication services.

c) Two young men love the same girl. But both understand that "the third is superfluous."

d) Childless spouses, having lived together for quite a few years, decided to get a divorce. However, they cannot decide who should be left with a one-room apartment, a car, furniture and other material assets acquired jointly.

e) The director of a private company promised his employees a solid bonus for the New Year holidays. But due to the failure of the partners to supply a large consignment of goods, the profit turned out to be insignificant, which did not allow the management to fulfill their promise. Discontent is brewing among the company's employees.

№ 6. Focusing on the psychological characteristics of the partner, write the maximum number of recommendations for optimizing interpersonal interaction in each situation:

a) A lot of people live in a communal apartment, among which is an elderly woman, who is distinguished by such traits as irritability, grumpiness, dissatisfaction with others. Because of her temper, conflicts with neighbors arise daily.

b) From the beginning of the semester, the student feels hostility from the teacher, who ignores him at seminars, underestimates his grades for answers. The student is worried about the upcoming exam.

c) A novice employee of the firm believes that the boss does not trust him with serious matters, is skeptical about his proposals, and sometimes allows himself rude statements addressed to him.

PERCEPTION IN COMMUNICATION

№ 1. What do you know about the "indifferent observer" phenomenon? What factors can affect how you get the help you need? Read the description of the situations and indicate in which of the two situations the hero is more likely to get help from others. Argue your opinion.

a) The tourist is lost and cannot find his way to the hotel

in a small provincial town.

OR A tourist is lost and cannot find his way to a hotel in a city of millions.

b) Robert was driving his BMW car from his dacha to an important meeting with representatives of a large company with which he was supposed to cooperate. Suddenly something happened to the clutch. Robert in an ironed suit and a strict tie stood on the road and waited for help. The road was resounded only by the roar of motorcycles rockers.

OR Robert was riding his motorcycle into the city, a sudden breakdown forced him to stop on the side of the road. Rocker motorcycles appeared in the distance.

c) A gust of wet wind tore the umbrella out of Anna's hands and drove it along the embankment.

OR Anna tries to attach her beach umbrella, but it can't protect her from the sun.

№ 2. In W. Shakespeare's comedy "Twelfth Night", friends Fabian and Sir Toby decided to play a joke on the admirer of the countess, Sir Andrew, and the envoy of Duke, the young man Cesario (actually dressed in a man's suit, the girl Viola). They persuaded Sir Andrew to challenge Cesario's imaginary rival to a duel. Jokingly, Fabian and Sir Toby scare each of their future opponents by telling tall tales about them:

FABIAN. I only know that the knight is in a terrible indignation against you, even to death. And the details are unknown to me.

VIOLA. What kind of person is he, please?

FABIAN. His appearance does not promise what is revealed when his courage is tested. He is truly one of the most experienced, indomitable and dangerous fighters in Illyria. If you like, we will go to him, if possible, I will try to reconcile you.

VIOLA. You will oblige me very much. For me, a bad peace is better than a good quarrel, and I am not drawn to become famous as a bully.

They leave. Enter Sir Toby and Sir Andrew.

SIR TOBY. Yes, mate, there's something diabolical about him. I have never met this type. We warmed up a bit with him on rapiers, scabbards and so on. He lunges with such terrible swiftness that it is simply unbearable, and with a batman he answers so accurately that his feet do not have time to touch the soles of the ground. They say he was a fencing teacher for the Persian Shah.

SIR ANDREW. Damn, I wouldn't want to mess with him.

SIR TOBY. Yes, but you can't calm him down now. Fabian can barely handle it here.

SIR ANDREW. To be empty! If I knew that he was not a coward and that he knew how to swordsmanship, I would rather send him to hell than bully him. Let him end the matter amicably, and I will give him my roan Capilet.

SIR TOBY. I'll try to suggest to him. Stay here and act like nothing happened. I hope everything goes without bloodshed. (Aside) I'll ride your roan like you do.

What psychological effect of social perception takes place here?

№ 3. Read the story of A. Dumas about Emperor Paul I.

"The French Revolution caused him extreme irritation; anyone who dared to remind him of her by any fact, comparison, quotation, joke, immediately fell into disfavor. Once he was returning from Gatchina in a two-person droshky, one of his favorites rode with him, followed by another carriage, in which there were a quartermaster and two secretaries. They crossed a magnificent forest, which has since disappeared, as all Russian forests disappear one after another.

- Look: what wonderful firs! Paul said to his favorite.

"Yes," the latter agreed and added: here they are, representatives of past centuries.

- Representatives! cried Pavel. "That's a word that smacks of the French Revolution. Get into another carriage, sir. And

Pavel dropped the favorite from his carriage so that he took a place next to the secretaries. This favorite remained in disfavor throughout Paul's life only because he ran into historical poetry about the spruce forest ... "

Explain the reason for the sudden anger of Emperor Paul I.
Choose the only correct answer:

- a) attribution;
- b) installation.

№ 4. Memo Eastwood Atwater. How to listen and how not to listen

Good Listening Techniques

Figure out your habits. What are your strengths? What mistakes are you making? Knowing your listening habits better is the first step in changing them.

1. Don't shirk responsibility for communication. Remember that at least 2 people participate in communication. One speaks - the other listens, and in the role of the listener, each acts alternately.

2. Be physically mindful. Use all means of non-verbal communication (turn, posture, gestures) and forms of active listening. Remember that the speaker wants to communicate with a lively, attentive interlocutor, and not with a stone wall.

3. Focus on what the other person is saying. There must be a conscious concentration of attention.

4. Try to understand not only the meaning of the words, but also the feelings of the interlocutor. Remember that people transmit their thoughts and feelings "coded" according to socially accepted norms.

5. Observe the speaker's non-verbal cues. Pay attention to the expression on the speaker's face and how often he looks at you intently and how he maintains eye contact with you. Pay attention to how close he sits, keep an eye on the tone of voice and the speed of speech.

6. Adhere to an approving attitude towards the interloc-

utor. This creates a favorable atmosphere for communication.

7. Try to express understanding. Use reflective listening techniques to understand how the other person is really feeling and what they are trying to say.

8. Listen to yourself. This skill is especially useful for developing the ability to listen to others. When you are preoccupied or emotionally aroused, you are the least able to listen to what others have to say. If someone's message touches on your feelings, express them to the interlocutor: this will clarify the situation and help you listen to others better.

9. Respond to requests with appropriate action. Remember that often the goal of the interlocutor is to get something tangible, such as information, or to change an opinion, or to get something done.

№ 5 Common Mistakes

Listening to the interlocutor NEVER:

1) don't mistake silence for attention. Ideally, one should be able to move from speaking to listening easily and naturally;

2) don't pretend to listen. It is better to admit that you are not listening and refer, for example, to being busy;

3) do not interrupt unnecessarily. If this has already happened, help restore the interrupted conversation;

4) Don't jump to conclusions. Remember, all kinds of evaluations are a barrier to meaningful communication;

5) don't ask too many questions. Closed questions should be kept to a minimum, and an excessively large number of open questions suppresses the interlocutor to a certain extent, takes away the initiative from him and puts him in a defensive position;

6) never tell the interlocutor "I understand your feelings well";

7) do not be overly sensitive to emotional words. This can make it difficult to understand the meaning of the message. Your own feelings can block you from understanding what you

really need to know;

8) do not give advice unless asked. If asked, use reflective listening techniques to find out what the interlocutor really wants;

9) do not hide behind listening as a refuge, while thinking about "your own". (Atwater I., 1988).

COMMUNICATIVE COMMUNICATION

№ 1. What medium did Daniel Webster write about: "Take everything I have from me. But leave me my speech. And soon I will have everything I had."

№ 2. What is the communication zone in question next? Only close relatives are allowed in this zone. In English, it is called bubble, which means "bubble". Inside our "bubble" we feel safe.

№ 3. What is the communication zone in question next? This is a zone of communication with familiar people, equal in social status. There is a well-known example of Nietzsche, which vividly illustrates the difference between these zones. Porcupines, in order not to freeze, huddle together, but at the same time they are pressed so tightly that they prick with their quills. From the point of view of personal response, the following can be formulated: "one should seek intimacy so as not to freeze, and avoid any intimacy that can "hurt" ".

№ 4. What communication barriers can be attributed to the following definitions? Jargon - technical terminology or characteristic idioms used in special activities or narrow groups. Slang is an unofficial non-standard dictionary.

№ 5. Rate the conversation techniques listed below. Which ones are positive and which ones are negative?

a) In a conversation, we accompany the partner's statements with remarks like: "You are talking nonsense", "You, I see, you don't understand anything on this issue", "I could explain it to you, but I'm afraid you won't understand it", etc. P.

b) Accompanying the partner's speech with statements like: "Yes ,

yes ..., yeah "

c) We literally repeat the statements of the partner. In this case, you can start with an introductory phrase: "As I understand you ...", "In your opinion ...", "Do you think ...", etc.

d) During the conversation, we insert statements like: "It's time to get down to the subject of conversation ...", "We are somewhat distracted from the topic ...", "Let's return to the purpose of our meeting", etc. 47

e) We try to find in the partner an understanding of only those problems that concern us ourselves.

f) We reproduce the partner's statement in an abbreviated, generalized form, briefly formulate the most significant in his words.

№ 6. Read the description of the various situations and indicate which methods of influence were used in each situation.

a) Someone dropped a catalog into your mailbox, on the first page of which it is written that you "won" (where and how it is silent) the right to choose a product from this catalog and receive it through the postal service after payment. At the same time, after purchasing the product, you will allegedly get the opportunity to participate in the drawing of a fashionable car or a trip for two to Paris. On the second page are printed photos of the "lucky ones" who have already won a car and tours. Then photographs of the advertised goods are printed.

b) You work in a team for the construction of country houses. Today, all the work crews are tired, the day was hot and stuffy. Everyone wants to finish the object faster. But suddenly you notice a significant defect in the work done by the team and offer everyone to stay to fix the defect. All members of the team are angry and do not want to hear about it, arguing that the defect is permissible by the rules of construction.

c) On the radio we hear an advertisement for a new rem-

edy developed by the best scientists for eye diseases. It is argued that the advertising medium is several times more effective than the usual old drugs and its action is multifunctional.

№ 7. Any dissatisfaction, criticism can be expressed through the "You message", or more effectively using the "I messages" technique.

In this case, the phrase consists of four main parts.

1. Phrase - a description of a fact that does not suit the behavior of another person, while without emotions or evaluation of a person as a person.

2. Description of your sensations or feelings in connection with this behavior. An explanation of how the behavior affects you or others.

3. A message about desire, that is, about what kind of behavior you would like to see instead of the one that caused dissatisfaction.

Thus: the "I-message" model consists of three parts:

- event (when..., if...);
- your reaction (I feel...);
- your preferred outcome (I would like to ...; I would prefer ...; I would be glad to ...).

Examples of possible translations from you-messages to I-messages:

Stop flickering before your eyes! When you go "back and forth", it is very difficult for me to concentrate!

Turn off the music as long as you can talk! Music interferes with my work.

Make a deal now. When I don't receive documents from you on time,

I have very unpleasant conversations with clients, and our Feedback and Suggestions Book is updated with new complaints about my work.

Stop teasing me! When I hear rudeness addressed to me, I

generally lose the desire to communicate and want to leave.

You should change your style! Our bank has adopted a uniform dress code for all employees. When someone breaks this rule, it causes displeasure of the management.

Get it off the table! I don't like dirty dishes on the table.
Dress warmly! I'm worried about your health.

By expressing our feelings and thoughts in the "I-message" format, we give the interlocutor the right to make a decision himself.

№ 8. Psychological diagnostics

Determination of the level of sociability Methodology of V. F. Ryakhovsky (Rogov E. I., 2002). Designed to identify the level of sociability, the ability to establish contact, including with strangers. The methodology consists of 16 questions. This technique can be used to diagnose subjects at least 15 years old.

Instruction. Here are a few simple questions for you. Answer quickly, unequivocally: "yes", "no", "sometimes".

1. You have an ordinary or business meeting. Does her anticipation unsettle you?
2. Do you feel embarrassed and dissatisfied with the assignment to make a report, report, information at any meeting, conference or similar event?
3. Do you put off your visit to the doctor until the last moment?
4. You are offered to go on a business trip to a city where you have never been. Will you make every effort to avoid this business trip?
5. Do you like to share your experiences with anyone?
6. Do you get annoyed if a stranger on the street turns to you with a request (show the way, tell the time)?
7. Do you believe that there is a problem of "fathers and sons" and that it is difficult for people of different generations to understand each other?
8. Are you embarrassed to remind a friend that he forgot

to pay you back the money he borrowed a few months ago?

9. In a restaurant or cafe, you were served an obviously poor-quality dish. Will you keep silent, only angrily pushing the plate?

10. Once alone with a stranger, you will not enter into a conversation with him and will be burdened if he speaks first. Is it so?

11. You are horrified by any long line, no matter where it is (in a store, library, cinema box office). Do you prefer to abandon your intention, or will you stand behind and languish in anticipation?

12. Are you afraid to participate in any conflict resolution committee?

13. You have your own, purely individual criteria for evaluating works of literature, art, culture, and you do not accept any other people's opinions on this matter. Is it so?

14. When you hear somewhere on the sidelines an obviously erroneous point of view on a matter well known to you, do you prefer to remain silent and not enter into an argument?

15. Do you get annoyed when someone asks you to help you sort out a particular service issue or study topic?

16. Are you more willing to express your point of view (opinion, assessment) in writing than orally?

Key Score 2 points for "yes", 1 point for "sometimes", and 0 points for "no". Sum up the points received and use the classifier to determine which category of people you belong to.

Classifier for the test of V. F. Ryakhovsky

30–32 points. You are clearly uncommunicative, and this is not easy for you and your loved ones. You are difficult to rely on in a matter that requires group effort. Try to be more sociable, control yourself.

25–29 points. You are closed, taciturn, prefer solitude, so you have few friends. A new job and the need for new contacts, if they don't plunge you into a panic, then they unbalance for a

long time. You know this feature of your character and are dissatisfied with yourself.

19-24 points. You are sociable to a certain extent, in an unfamiliar environment you feel quite confident. New challenges don't scare you. And yet with new people converge with caution, you are reluctant to participate in disputes and disputes. There is sometimes too much sarcasm in your statements for no reason at all. But these shortcomings are correctable.

14-18 points. You have good communication skills. You are inquisitive, willingly listen to an interesting interlocutor, patient enough in dealing with others, defend your point of view without irascibility. Feel free to meet new people. At the same time, do not like noisy companies, extravagant antics and verbosity annoy you.

9-13 points. You are very sociable (sometimes, perhaps even beyond measure). Curious, talkative, like to speak out on various issues, which can irritate others. Willingly meet new people. Love to be the center of attention, do not refuse requests to anyone, although you cannot always fulfill them. Sometimes there is not enough perseverance and patience.

4-8 points. You must be always up to date with everything, like to take part in all discussions, although serious topics can cause you migraines and even blues. Willingly take the floor on any issue, even if you have a superficial idea about it. You take on any business, although you cannot always successfully bring it to the end. For this reason, managers and colleagues treat you with some apprehension and doubt.

3 points or less. Your sociability is painful: you are talkative, verbose, interfering in matters that have nothing to do with you. You undertake to judge problems in which you are completely incompetent. Willingly or unwittingly, you are often the cause of all sorts of conflicts in your environment. Cultivate in yourself patience and restraint, respect for other people, for their opinion

PSYCHOLOGY OF SMALL GROUPS

№ 1. "The team is a group of people united by common goals and objectives, who have reached a high level of development in the process of socially valuable joint activity." And how can you characterize a close-knit and long-organized gang? In terms of the level of intra-group communication, it is akin to a collective, but in terms of the direction of the joint activity of its members, it is opposite to it. What type of small group would you classify such anti-social groups as? Name other similar groups.

№ 2. Is it of practical importance for a teacher, manager, practical psychologist to know that there are informal groups within the team in which he works?

If it doesn't matter, then why? If it matters, what is it?

№ 3. State the reasons why a group makes more risky decisions than an individual.

№ 4. Analyze the statement of L.S. Vygotsky: "... a person alone with himself retains the function of communication." Is it possible to understand this as a communication of an individual with himself (a mental dialogue with himself)? If so, under which of the previous definitions can this be summed up?

THE PROBLEM OF CORRELATIONS OF PERSONALITY AND SOCIETY

№ 1. Comment on the text and explain how self-esteem affects the processes of social perception and self-perception. In Gottschaldt's experiments, adolescent subjects were shown specially made photographs of the subjects themselves, their parents, classmates, and teachers. The photographs were undistorted and distorted - somewhat narrowed or enlarged. In all cases, it was necessary to choose the "correct"

(similar) portrait. Although the subjects, looking at themselves in the mirror, had the opportunity to choose undistorted photographs from a number of their own portraits, they, looking for the most similar one, found a tendency to choose an enlarged

or narrowed image depending on self-esteem. When choosing a photograph of a classmate, the expanded image was preferred if its superiority was recognized, and the narrowed one, in case of a disdainful attitude towards it.

When subjects aged 10 and 16 chose their photographs and portraits of their parents, it was found that 10-year-old children chose undistorted portraits among their own, but enlarged ones among their parents' photographs. The 16-year-old subjects chose their portraits in the expanded version, and the portraits of their parents - in the narrowed version.

№ 2. I.S. Cohn identified the following self-assessment mechanisms:

- assimilation by the subject of evaluation by other people (both a direct reflection of other people's evaluations, and an orientation to how the individual imagines these evaluations, as well as alignment with a generalized other);
- social comparison (the individual realizes and evaluates
- yourself by comparing with other people);
- self-attribution (an individual evaluates himself and his internal states by observing his behavior in various situations).

Explain for which age stages the inclusion of certain mechanisms is characteristic. Are self-esteem mechanisms personal or are they universal?

GLOSSARYA

ABULIA - complete lack of initiative, complete inactivity with minimal preservation of the circle of automated actions.

ABILITIES - the individual characteristics of people on which their acquisition of knowledge, skills and abilities, as well as the success of performing various activities, depends.

ABSTRACTION is one of the mental operations; the process of thinking, as a result of which a person, abstracting from the inessential, forms concepts, ascending from the concrete to the abstract

ADAPTATION IS ADAPTABILITY. Professional adaptation is understood as the process of adaptation and getting used to the real conditions of activity of a young specialist.

ACCREDITATION - obtaining the right of an educational institution to issue to its graduates a state document on education, to be included in the system of centralized state financing and to use the official seal **ACTUALIZATION** - the transition of a mental phenomenon from potential to actual or from less actual to more actual

ACCENTATION - highlighting a property or feature against the background of others, its special development.

ACTIVITY is a concept that indicates the ability of living beings to produce spontaneous movements and change under the influence of external or internal stimuli-irritants.

ACTIVITY is a specific type of human activity aimed at creative transformation, improvement of reality and oneself.

ACTION is an action consciously performed by a person and controlled by the will, based on certain beliefs.

ADAPTATION - adaptation of the sense organs to the characteristics of the stimuli acting on them in order to better perceive them and protect the receptors from excessive overload.

ADDICTION - addiction, addiction; a compulsive need felt

by a person for a particular activity.

AMBITION - a person's desire for success, designed to increase his authority and recognition from others.

ALTERNATIVE EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTIONS

- educational

institutions operating in parallel or in addition to public educational institutions and creating an alternative to public education

ANALYTICAL SKILLS - theoretical analysis of facts and phenomena

AUTONOMY - the ability to be independent from external influences

AUTHORITARIAN - based on blind obedience and power, imposing one's views on others

THE AUTHORITARIAN STYLE OF COMMUNICATION includes the

sole decision of the teacher of all issues related to the life of students, focusing on himself. He single-handedly determines the direction of the group's activities, indicates who should work with whom, suppressing any initiative, considering it to be self-willed

AXIOLOGY is a philosophical doctrine of values, their origin and essence. The axiological component of professional and pedagogical culture includes a set of pedagogical values that are spreading at the present stage of education development

AFFECT is a short-term, rapidly flowing state of strong emotional arousal that occurs as a result of frustration or some other reason that strongly affects the psyche, usually associated with the dissatisfaction of needs that are very important for a person.

AFFILIATION - a person's need to establish, maintain and strengthen emotionally positive: friendly, comradely, friendly relations with people around.

AFFIRMATION - a short phrase containing a verbal formula, which, when repeated many times, fixes the required image or attitude in the subconscious of a person, helping to improve

his psycho-emotional background and stimulating positive changes in life.

AGGRESSION (hostility) - a person's behavior towards other people, which is distinguished by the desire to cause trouble to them, to harm.

ALIENATION - the process or result of the loss for a person of the meaning or personal meaning of what previously attracted his attention, was interesting and important for him.

ALTRUISM is a character trait that encourages a person to selflessly come to the aid of people and animals.

ANXIETY - the property of a person to come into a state of increased anxiety, experience fear and anxiety in specific social situations.

APATHY - a state of emotional indifference, indifference and inactivity: **APPERCEPTION** is a concept introduced by the German scientist G. Leibniz. Determines the state of special clarity of consciousness, its focus on something. In the understanding of another German scientist, W. Wundt, it meant some internal force that directs the course of thought and the course of mental processes.

APROSEXIA is the complete loss of the ability to direct and fix attention. **ASSOCIATION** - connection, connection of mental phenomena with each other.

ASSOCIATION - a reflection in the mind of the connections of cognizable phenomena, when the idea of one causes the appearance of a thought about another

ATtribution - the attribution of some directly unperceivable property to an object, person or phenomenon.

ATTENTION - a state of psychological concentration, concentration on an object.

AUTHORITARY (powerful, directive) - a characteristic of a person as a person or his behavior towards other people, emphasizing the tendency to use predominantly non-democratic methods of influencing them: pressure, orders, orders, etc.

AUTHORITY - the ability of a person to have a certain weight among people, to serve as a source of ideas for them and to enjoy their recognition and respect.

ATTRACTION - attraction, attraction of one person to another, accompanied by positive emotions.

AUTOSUGGESTIA - see Autosuggestion.

B

BELIEF - a person's belief in something, not supported by convincing logical arguments or facts.

BASIC EDUCATION is a unified state minimum of education (general, vocational), which is the basis for further education at a higher level **BACHELOR** - the first qualification in the system of higher professional education, awarded upon completion of four years of study after successfully passing exams and defending the final qualifying work

THE BIOGRAPHICAL METHOD is the study of a person according to the available documents of her biography. This may be memoir literature (for example, "Memoirs of a Diplomat" by I.I. Maisky, etc.)

BEHAVIORAL theory (behavioral) in behaviorism, thinking was considered as the process of forming complex relationships between objects and reactions, the formation of practical skills related to problem solving

C

CAUSAL ATTRIBUTION - the attribution of some explanatory reason to the observed action or act of a person.

CHARACTER - a set of personality traits that determine the typical ways of its response to life circumstances.

CENSORSHIP is a psychoanalytic concept that denotes subconscious psychological forces that seek to prevent certain thoughts, feelings, images, desires from entering consciousness.

CENTRAL - a characteristic of the nervous processes occurring at the highest levels of the central nervous system.

CENTRAL NERVOUS SYSTEM - part of the nervous sys-

tem, including the brain, diencephalon and spinal cord.

CERTIFICATION of an educational institution
- establishing the compliance of the content, level and quality of training of graduates of an educational institution with the requirements of state educational standards
COGNITIVE Helplessness is a psychological state or situation in which an individual, having the necessary knowledge, skills and abilities to solve a problem, due to a number of cognitive reasons, cannot cope with it.

A **COLLECTIVE** is a highly developed small group of people in which relations are built on positive moral standards. K. has increased efficiency in work, manifested in the form of a super additive effect.

COMMUNICATION - the exchange of information between people, their interaction.

COMMUNICATIONS - contacts, communication, information exchange and interaction of people with each other.

COMPATIBILITY - the ability of people to work together, successfully solve problems that require them to coordinate actions and good mutual understanding.

COMPENSATION - the ability of a person to get rid of feelings about his own shortcomings due to increased work on himself and the development of other positive qualities. The concept of K. was introduced by A. Adler.

COMPETITION - the desire of a person to compete with other people, the desire to defeat them, win, surpass.

CONCLUSION - the process of a logical conclusion of a certain position from some reliable statements - premises.

CONVERGENCE is the convergence of the visual axes of the eyes on an object or to one point in the visual space.

CONSCIENCE is a concept denoting a person's ability to experience, perceive deeply personally and regret cases of violation of moral norms by himself or other people. S. characterizes a person who has reached a high level of psychological devel-

opment.

CONSCIOUSNESS is the highest level of a person's mental reflection of reality, its representation in the form of generalized images and concepts.

CONSTANTITY OF PERCEPTION - the property to perceive objects and see them relatively constant in size, shape and color in changing physical conditions of perception.

CONFORMITY - uncritical acceptance by a person of someone else's wrong opinion, accompanied by an insincere rejection of his own opinion, the correctness of which the person internally does not doubt. Such refusal in case of conforming behavior is usually motivated by some opportunistic considerations.

CONVERSATION is one of the methods of psychology, which provides for direct or indirect obtaining of information through verbal communication. The results of the conversation (according to a well-thought-out plan and a questionnaire program) are recorded in the form of a free entry or pre-designed maps-tables

COHESION OF A SMALL GROUP is a psychological characteristic of the unity of the members of a small group.

GOODWILL - the desire to be open to people, responsiveness, attentiveness
COOPERATION - a person's desire for coordinated, well-coordinated work with people. Willingness to support and help them. The opposite of rivalry.

CONSCIENTIOUSNESS - honest observance of personal and social obligations

CORRELATION is a mathematical concept that indicates a statistical relationship that exists between the phenomena under study.

CREATIVE THINKING is a type of thinking associated with the creation or discovery of something new.

CRISIS - a state of mental disorder caused by a person's long-term dissatisfaction with himself and his relationships with

the outside world. To. age quite often arises at transition of the person from one age group to another.

D

DEDUCTION - a type of inference from general judgments to particular ones; method of knowledge. Project ~ independently developed and manufactured product (service) from an idea to its full implementation

THE DEMOCRATIC STYLE OR THE STYLE OF COOPERATION

OF THE TEACHER is focused on increasing the subjective role of students in interaction, on involving everyone in solving common problems. Listening to the opinion of the team. The leader tries to bring the goals of the activity to the "consciousness of the group". The leader sees his goal not only in control and coordination, but also in the education of group members, therefore the tasks are motivated, the efforts of each participant are encouraged DIVERSIFICATION (lat. divarication - change, diversity) - in education means the transition from a mono-level structure of education to a variety of levels of forms of education. It is designed to expand the possibility of self-realization of the individual. Two main ways of diversification have been outlined in vocational education: multi-stage and multi-level training

THE DYNAMICS OF PERSONALITY - the process of its formation is a change during the properties and qualities of the subject, which constitutes the ontogenetic development of a person

DISCUSSION - 1) discussion of any controversial issue in conversation, in print, dispute; 2) a teaching method based on the exchange of opinions on a specific problem

DUTY - awareness of the need to comply with certain moral obligations DUALISM (from Latin to (two) and dials (dual) asserts the existence of two principles independent of each other - matter and spirit

DECISION - readiness to move on to practical actions, the formed intention to commit a certain act.

DELUSION is an abnormal, painful state of the human psyche, accompanied by fantastic images, visions, hallucinations.

DEPERSONALIZATION (depersonalization) is a temporary loss by a person of the psychological and behavioral characteristics that characterize him as a person.

DEPRESSION - a state of mental disorder, depression, characterized by a breakdown and a decrease in activity.

DETERMINATION - causation.

DESIRE - the desire and readiness to act in a certain way.

DESIRE is a state of actualized, i.e. a need that has begun to act, accompanied by a desire and willingness to do something specific to satisfy it.

DEVIANT (DEVIANT) BEHAVIOR - human behavior deviating from established legal or moral norms, violating them.

DISTRESS - the negative impact of a stressful situation on human activity, up to its complete destruction.

DISSOLUTION is the inability to concentrate on an object.

DOMINANT - the predominant focus of excitation in the human brain, associated with increased attention or urgent need. Able to increase due to the attraction of excitations from neighboring areas of the brain. The concept of D. was introduced by A. Ukhtomsky.

DREAMS are a person's plans for the future, presented in his imagination and realizing the most important needs and interests for him.

DREAMS - fantasies, dreams of a person, drawing in his imagination pleasant, desired pictures of a future life.

E

EDUCATION is a process of systematic and purposeful influence on the spiritual and physical development of the individual in order to prepare its industrial, social and cultural activ-

ities.

EDUCATION is a socially organized activity of teachers and pupils for the realization of the goals of education in the conditions of the pedagogical process

THE EDUCATION OF THE MORAL QUALITIES OF A PERSON is

based on the understanding and development of moral values that make up modern public morality

EDUCATIONAL WORK - pedagogical activity aimed at organizing the educational environment and managing various activities of pupils in order to solve the problems of the harmonious development of the individual
EDUCATIONAL FUNCTIONS OF THE TEAM - organizational, educational, stimulating

EGO-CENTRISM - the concentration of consciousness and attention of a person exclusively on himself, accompanied by ignoring what is happening around.

EFFERENT - a process directed from the inside out, from the central nervous system to the periphery of the body.

EMOTIONS are elementary experiences that arise in a person under the influence of the general state of the body and the course of the process of meeting actual needs.

EMOTIONALITY - a characteristic of a person, manifested in the frequency of occurrence of various emotions and feelings.

Empathy is a person's ability to empathize and sympathize with other people, to understand their internal states.

EMPATHY - a person experiencing the same feelings and emotions that are characteristic of people next to him (see also empathy).

EXCITABILITY - the property of living matter to come into a state of excitation under the influence of stimuli and retain its traces for some time.

EXPECTATION is one of the basic concepts of cognitive psychology, expressing the ability of a person to anticipate fu-

ture events.

EXPERIENCE - a feeling accompanied by emotions.

EXTRAVERSION - the focus of a person's consciousness and attention mainly on what is happening around him. Extraversion is the opposite of introversion.

F

FAMILIAR - exaggeratedly laid-back, cheeky, unceremonious.

FATIGUE - a state of fatigue accompanied by - (see autism, imagination, daydreams, dreams).

FEEDBACK is the process of obtaining information about the states of a communication partner in order to improve communication and achieve the desired result.

FEELING - the highest, culturally determined human emotion associated with some social object.

FOCUS - concentration of a person's attention.

FORGETTING is a memory process associated with the loss of traces of previous influences and the possibility of their reproduction.

FRUSTRATION - an emotionally difficult experience by a person of his failure, accompanied by a feeling of hopelessness, the collapse of hopes in achieving a certain desired goal.

G

GENETIC MEMORY - memory, due to the genotype, transmitted from generation to generation.

GENDER-ROLE BEHAVIOR - behavior characteristic of a person of a certain gender in the social role that corresponds to this gender.

GENIUS - the highest level of development in a person of any abilities, making him an outstanding personality in the corresponding field or field of activity.

GENOTYPE - a set of genes or any qualities inherited by a person from his parents.

GESTALT THEORY - (Gestalt-image) As the basis for the

formation of connections, this theory puts the principle of synthesis of elements, integrity, structure (but this theory considers the principle of integrity as originally given and the laws of gestalt operate outside and in addition to the activity of the subject itself)

GESTURE - the movement of a person's hands, expressing his internal state or pointing to some object in the outside world.

GIFTEDNESS - the presence in a person of the inclinations to develop abilities.

GNOSTIC ACTIVITY. Gnostic activity is expressed in the ability to deeply and comprehensively cognize the surrounding world and oneself. The teacher analyzes the process and results of his research, scientific activities of students and graduate students. Gnostic activity, like practical activity, can be objective and external. It can also be perceptual activity or symbolic activity. **GNOSTIC** - cognitive (from the Greek "gnosis" - knowledge)

GRAPHIC ORGANIZER - a means of visual representation of thought processes

A **GROUP** is a collection of people identified on the basis of any one or more features common to them.

GROUP DYNAMICS is a branch of research in social psychology that studies the process of emergence, functioning and development of different groups.

GROUP WORK is a form of organization of educational work focused on participants who are assigned an active role in the learning process as part of a small group (from 2 to 8 people) created to jointly complete a learning task. At the same time, the main thing is not the task itself - the result, but the interaction within the group - the process

H

HABITATION - cessation or decrease in the severity of response to a stimulus that still continues to act.

HALLUCINATIONS are unrealistic, fantastic images that arise in a person during illnesses that affect the state of his psy-

che.

HUMANIZATION OF EDUCATION - spreading the ideas of humanism to the content, forms and methods of education and upbringing; providing the educational process with a versatile and harmonious development of the natural forces and abilities of a person

HUMANISM - 1) a worldview based on the principles of equality, justice, humanity of relations between people, imbued with love for people, respect for human dignity, concern for the welfare of people; 2) human recognition and human respect, faith in the creative destiny of people; 3) one of the basic principles of pedagogy at present

HUMANISTIC EDUCATION - aims at the harmonious development of the personality and implies the human nature of relations between the participants in the pedagogical process
Gestalt theory - (Gestalt-image) As the basis for the formation of connections, this theory puts the principle of synthesis of elements, integrity, structure (but this theory considers the principle of integrity as originally given and the laws of gestalt operate outside and in addition to the activity of the subject itself)

HYPERTEXT - a type of interactive environment with the ability to follow links that allow you to select the necessary information

HYPOTHESIS - a set of theoretically substantiated propositions, the truth of which is subject to verification

HYPERBULIA - a pathological increase in volitional activity, an increased desire for activity.

HYPNOSIS is a temporary shutdown of a person's consciousness or removal of conscious control over one's own behavior caused by suggestive influence.

HYPOBULIA - a pathological weakening of volitional activity, the desire for activity.

I

IDENTIFICATION - identification. In psychology, the es-

establishment of the similarity of one person with another, aimed at remembering him and his own development of a person who identifies with him.

IDENTIFICATION - identification. In psychology, the establishment of the similarity of one person with another, aimed at remembering him and his own development of a person who identifies with him.

ILLUSIONS are phenomena of perception, imagination and memory that exist only in the human head and do not correspond to any real phenomenon or object.

IMAGE - a generalized picture of the world (objects, phenomena), emerging as a result of processing information about it, coming through the senses.

IMAGINATION - the ability to imagine an absent or not really existing object, to keep it in the mind and mentally manipulate it.

IMITATION - conscious or unconscious human behavior aimed at reproducing the actions and actions of other people.

IMPULSIVITY is a characterological trait of a person, manifested in his tendency to fleeting, ill-considered actions and deeds.

INDIVIDUALS - prerequisites for the development of abilities. They can be congenital or acquired during life.

INDIVIDUAL - a single person in the aggregate of all his inherent qualities: biological, physical, social, psychological, etc.

INDIVIDUALITY - a peculiar combination of individual properties of a person that distinguishes him from other people.

INDIVIDUAL STYLE OF ACTIVITY - a stable combination of the features of performing different types of activities by the same person.

INFECTIOUSNESS is a psychological term denoting the unconscious transmission from person to person of any emotions, states, motives.

INITIATIVE - manifestation by a person of activity, not

stimulated from the outside and not determined by circumstances beyond his control.

INTERNAL SPEECH is a special type of human speech activity, directly related to unconscious, automatically occurring processes of translating thoughts into words and vice versa.

INFANTILISM is a manifestation of childhood traits in the psychology and behavior of an adult.

INFERIORITY COMPLEX - a complex condition of a person associated with a lack of any qualities (abilities, knowledge, skills), accompanied by deep negative emotional experiences about this.

INSIGHT (insight, conjecture) - unexpected for the person himself, a sudden finding of a solution to a problem, over which he thought long and hard.

INSTINCT - an innate, little-changed form of behavior that ensures the adaptation of the body to the typical conditions of its life.

An INTELLIGENT is a person of deep inner culture and independent thinking.

INTELLIGENCE - the totality of the mental abilities of man and some higher animals, for example, great apes.

INTELLIGENCE OF PERCEPTION - the property of human perception to attribute a certain meaning to a perceived object or phenomenon, designate it with a word, refer to a certain language category.

INTERACTION - interaction.

INTEREST - emotionally colored, increased attention of a person to an object or phenomenon.

INTERVIEW - a method of psychological study, in the process of applying which people are asked questions and, based on the answers to them, they judge the psychology of these people.

INTENTION - a conscious desire, a willingness to do something. INTERPERSONAL CONFLICT - an intractable contradiction that arises between people and is caused by the incompati-

bility of their views, interests, goals, needs.

INTELLECTUAL DEVELOPMENT COEFFICIENT - a numerical

indicator of a person's mental development, obtained as a result of the use of special tests designed to quantify the level of development of a person's intelligence.

INTRAPERSONAL CONFLICT - a state of dissatisfaction of a person with any circumstances of his life, associated with the presence of conflicting interests, aspirations, needs that give rise to affects and stresses.

INTROVERSION - the appeal of a person's consciousness to himself; preoccupation with one's own problems and experiences, accompanied by a weakening of attention to what is happening around. I. is one of the basic personality traits.

INTROSPECTION - a method of cognition of mental phenomena through self-observation of a person, i.e. careful study by the person himself of what happens in his mind when solving various kinds of problems.

INSTALLATION - readiness, predisposition to certain actions or reactions to specific stimuli.

INTUITION - the ability to quickly find the right solution to a problem and navigate difficult life situations, as well as foresee the course of events.

IRRITABILITY - the ability of living organisms to respond biologically expediently (for the purpose of self-preservation and development) to environmental influences that are significant for their life.

J

JUDGMENT - the ability to make considered decisions or come to sensible conclusions. "an error of judgement"

JUST NOTICEABLE DIFFERENCE - In the branch of [experimental psychology](#) focused on [sense](#), [sensation](#), and [perception](#), which is called [psychophysics](#), a just-noticeable difference or JND is the amount something must be changed in order for a

difference to be noticeable, detectable at least half the time. This [limen](#) is also known as the difference limen, difference threshold, or least perceptible difference.

K

KEY STIMULUS - It refers to a stimulus (sign stimulus, releaser) that is adequate to activate an (innate) releasing mechanism. A key stimulus represents a behaviorally meaningful object by a few characteristic features. The term "key" stimulus is based on the idea that the releasing features are analogous to a key which opens a lock.

KINESTHESIS - the sense that provides information through receptors in the muscles, tendons, and joints, enabling humans and other animals to control and coordinate their movements, including walking, talking, facial expressions, gestures, and posture. Also called kinesthesia; kinesthetic sense; movement sense.

KLEINFELTER'S SYNDROME - Typical for men. It is expressed in violation of sexual chromosomes and leads to sterility and sometimes mental retardation.

KNOWLEDGE - 1: the fact or condition of knowing something with familiarity gained through experience or association. 2 : acquaintance with or understanding of a science, art, or technique.

KORSAKOFF'S PSYCHOSIS - Irreversible deficiency of body weight due to alcohol poisoning. It is characterized by amnesia and confabulation.

L

A LARGE GROUP is a social association of people of considerable quantitative composition, formed on the basis of some abstract socio- demographic feature: gender, age, nationality, professional affiliation, social or economic status, etc.

LABILITY - a property of nervous processes (nervous system), manifested in the ability to conduct a certain number of nerve impulses per unit of time.

L. also characterizes the speed of occurrence and termination of the nervous process.

LEADER - A member of a group whose authority, power or authority is unconditionally recognized by the other members of the small group who are ready to follow him.

LEADERSHIP - the behavior of a leader in a small group. The acquisition or loss of leadership powers by him, the exercise of his leadership functions. **LEARNING** is the acquisition of knowledge, skills and abilities as a result of life experience.

LEGAL PSYCHOLOGY - a branch of psychological science that studies the mental processes, phenomena and states of people involved in the perception, following legal norms. In Yu.p. the phenomena associated with the production of an inquiry, the trial and the correction of convicts are also investigated.

LEVEL OF CLAIMS - the maximum success that a person expects to achieve in a particular type of activity.

LIFE ACTIVITIES - a set of types of activity united by the concept of "life" and characteristic of living matter.

LOCUS OF CONTROL is a concept that characterizes the localization of the reasons on the basis of which a person explains his own behavior and the behavior of other people he observes. Internal L.c. - this is a search for the causes of behavior in the person himself, and the external L.k. - their localization outside the person, in his environment. The concept of L.K. introduced by the American psychologist J. Rotter.

LONGITUDINAL STUDY - a long-term scientific study of the processes of formation, development and change of any mental or behavioral phenomena.

LONG-TERM MEMORY - a memory designed for long-term storage and repeated reproduction of information, provided that it is preserved.

LOVE is the highest spiritual feeling of a person, rich in a variety of emotional experiences, based on noble feelings and high morality, and accompanied by a willingness to do every-

thing in your power for the well-being of a loved one.

M

MASS PHENOMENA OF THE PSYCHE - socio-psychological phenomena that arise in the masses of people (population, crowd, mass, group, nation, etc.). M.i.p. include rumors, panic, imitation, contagion, suggestion, etc.

MASS COMMUNICATIONS - means of information transmission designed for a mass audience: print, radio, television, etc.

MASOCHISM - self-humiliation, self-torture of a person, associated with dissatisfaction with himself and the conviction that the causes of life's failures are in himself (see internal locus of control). M. is one of the main concepts used in the typology of social characters proposed by the German-American scientist E. Fromm.

MEANING (words, concepts) - the content that is put into a given word or concept by all people who use it.

MENTAL PROCESSES - processes occurring in the human head and reflected in dynamically changing mental phenomena: sensations, perception, imagination, memory, thinking, speech, etc.

MEMORY - the processes of memorization, preservation, reproduction and processing by a person of various information.

MEMORIZATION is one of the processes of memory, denoting the introduction into memory of newly incoming information.

MELANCHOLIC - a person whose behavior is characterized by slow reactions to existing stimuli, as well as speech, thought and motor processes. MIMIC - a set of movements of parts of a person's face, expressing his state or attitude to what he perceives (imagines, ponders, recalls, etc.).

MODALITY is a concept denoting the quality of sensations that arise under the influence of certain stimuli.

MOOD - the emotional state of a person associated with

weakly expressed positive or negative emotions and existing for a long time.

MOTIVE OF AVOIDING FAILURE - a more or less stable desire of a person to avoid failures in those life situations where the results of his activities are evaluated by other people. **M.H.S.** - a personality trait that is opposite to the motive for achieving success.

MOTIVATION is a dynamic process of internal, psychological and physiological control of behavior, including its initiation, direction, organization, support.

MOTIVATION - a rational justification, an explanation by the person himself of his actions, which does not always correspond to the truth.

MOTIVE OF POWER is a stable personality trait that expresses the need of one person to have power over other people, the desire to dominate, manage, dispose of them.

MOTIVE is an internal stable psychological reason for a person's behavior or act.

MUTUAL LEARNING is based on a single basic principle: the study group is divided into small groups. Each member of the group becomes an expert in a certain area of the topic being studied and teaches others. person to another, causing certain changes in his psychology and behavior

N

NEED - a state of need of an organism, individual, personality in something necessary for their normal existence.

NEGATIVISM - a person's demonstrative opposition to other people, his refusal to accept reasonable advice from other people. Often occurs in children during age-related crises.

NEUROTISM is a property of a person, characterized by his increased excitability, impulsiveness and anxiety.

NEUROPSYCHOLOGY is a branch of psychological science that studies the relationship of mental processes, properties and states with the functioning of the brain.

O

OBJECTING is a dialectical-materialistic concept that denotes the process and result of the embodiment in the objects of human activity that make up material and spiritual culture, of his own abilities.

OBJECTIVENESS OF PERCEPTION - the property of perception to represent the world not in the form of separate sensations, but in the form of integral images related to perceived objects.

OBJECTIVATION is the process and result of the localization of perception images in the external world, where the source of perceived information is located.

OBSERVATION - a method of psychological research, designed to directly obtain the necessary information through the senses.

ONTOGENESIS is the process of individual development of an organism or personality.

OPERATION - a system of movements associated with the performance of a specific action, aimed at achieving its goal.

ORDINARY CONSCIOUSNESS - the average level of consciousness of the masses of people that make up a given society. O.s. differs from scientific consciousness in the low reliability and accuracy of the information available in it.

ORDERING REACTION (REFLEX) - the body's reaction to new stimuli, manifested in its general activation, in focusing attention, in mobilizing forces and resources.

P

PANIC is a mass phenomenon of the psyche, characterized by the occurrence simultaneously in many people who are in contact with each other, feelings of fear, anxiety, as well as erratic, chaotic movements and ill-considered actions.

PANTOMIME is a system of expressive movements performed with the help of the body.

PERCEPTION - the process of receiving and processing by

a person of various information entering the brain through the senses. It ends with the formation of the image.

PERCEPTIVE - pertaining to perception.

PERSONALITY is a concept denoting a set of stable psychological qualities of a person that make up his personality.

PERSONAL ORIENTATION - a concept that denotes a set of needs and motives of a person that determines the main direction of her behavior.

PERSONALITY TRAIT - a stable property of a person that determines her characteristic behavior and thinking.

PERSONALIZATION - the process of turning a person into a person (see), acquiring individuality.

PERSONAL MEANING - the meaning that an object, event, fact or word acquires for a given person as a result of his personal life experience. The concept of S.I. introduced by A. N. Leontiev.

PHLEGMATIC - a type of human temperament, characterized by reduced reactivity, poorly developed, slow expressive movements.

PRIMARY DATA - that information about the phenomena under study, which is obtained at the beginning of the study and is subject to further processing before reliable conclusions about these phenomena can be made on its basis.

PRIMARY EMOTIONS - genotypically (see genotype) due to the simplest emotional experiences: pleasure, displeasure, pain, fear, anger, etc.

PRACTICAL THINKING is a type of thinking aimed at solving practical problems.

PREJUDICE - a persistent erroneous opinion, not supported by facts and logic, based on faith.

PRECONSCIOUSNESS - the mental state of a person, occupying an intermediate place between consciousness and the unconscious. It is characterized by the presence of a vague awareness of what is being experienced, but the absence of volitional

control or the ability to manage it. PROJECTION is one of the defense mechanisms by which a person gets rid of feelings about his own shortcomings by attributing them to other people.

PROSOCIAL BEHAVIOR - the behavior of a person among people, disinterestedly aimed at their benefit.

A PROPENSITY is a predisposition towards something.

PROTECTIVE MECHANISMS is a psychoanalytic concept that denotes a set of unconscious techniques by which a person, as a person, protects himself from psychological trauma.

PROPERTIES OF THE HUMAN NERVOUS SYSTEM - a complex of

physical characteristics of the nervous system that determine the processes of occurrence, conduction, switching and termination of nerve impulses in various departments and parts of the central nervous system.

PSYCHE is a general concept denoting the totality of all mental phenomena studied in psychology.

PSYCHOLOGICAL COMPATIBILITY OF PEOPLE - the ability of

people to find mutual understanding, establish business and personal contacts, cooperate with each other.

PSYCHOTHERAPY - a complex psychological impact of a doctor on the patient's psyche through the word. The goal of psychotherapy is to eliminate painful symptoms, change attitudes towards oneself, one's condition and the environment. Psychotherapy in a broad sense covers the entire field of communication between the doctor and the patient. A doctor of any profile, communicating with the patient, has a psychological impact on him. Talking with the patient, the doctor seeks to assess his state of mind, to understand and find out the reasons that led to the deterioration of the patient's psychological state. The basis of all psychotherapeutic techniques is suggestion and clarification, offered in various proportions and sequences.

PSYCHOLOGICAL BARRIER - an internal obstacle of a

psychological nature (reluctance, fear, uncertainty, etc.) that prevents a person from successfully performing some action. It often occurs in business and personal relationships between people and prevents the establishment of open and trusting relationships between them.

Q

QUESTIONNAIRE - a questionnaire for obtaining answers to a pre-set system of questions. Questionnaires can be open and closed type. Open-ended questions usually do not limit the ways in which they can be answered. With closed answers, a choice of answer is given, for example, by underlining one of them ("yes", "no", "sometimes", etc.), the subject gives an answer to the question

QUESTIONNAIRE PERSONAL - a method of researching a personality based on the use of a system of written or oral, pre-thought out questions addressed to a person whose psychological characteristics are to be studied.

QUALIFICATION - the level of preparedness, the degree of suitability for any type of work; the quality, level and type of professional training necessary to perform labor functions in the specialty in the position held

QUALIFICATION - the level of development of a person's abilities, allowing him to perform professional functions of a certain degree of complexity in a particular type of activity. Qualification is determined by the volume of theoretical knowledge, practical skills, the degree of formation of professionally important qualities

R

RAM is a type of memory designed to store information for a certain time required to perform some action or operation.

REACTION - the body's response to some stimulus.

RECOGNIZATION - the assignment of a perceived object to the category of already known.

RELAXATION - relaxation.

RELIABILITY - the quality of a scientific research method that allows you to get the same results with repeated or repeated use of this method.

REFERENCE GROUP - A group of people who are attractive to an individual in some way. Group source of individual values, judgments, actions, norms and rules of conduct.

REFERENTOMETRY - a technique that allows you to find out the degree of significance of each member of the group for his comrades in the community, to identify, on the one hand, those whose opinion in a given community is oriented by the majority of its members, and on the other hand, those whose position on a particular issue is practically everyone is indifferent.

REFLEX - an automatic response of the body to the action of any internal or external stimulus.

REFLECTION - the ability of human consciousness to focus on itself. REFLECTION is a philosophical and epistemological concept related to the theory of knowledge. In accordance with it, all mental processes and states of a person are considered as reflections in the head of a person of an objective reality independent of him.

REPLACEMENT is one of the defense mechanisms in psychoanalytic personality theory (see psychoanalysis). Under the influence of V., information is removed from a person's memory into the sphere of the unconscious, causing him strong unpleasant emotional experiences.

REPRESENTATION - the process and result of reproduction in the form of an image of an object, event, phenomenon.

REVIVAL COMPLEX is a complex sensory-motor reaction of an infant (about 2-3 months old) that occurs when perceiving a loved one, primarily his mother.

RIGIDITY - inhibition of thinking, manifested in the difficulty of a person's refusal from a decision once made, a way of thinking and acting.

ROLE - a concept that denotes a person's behavior in a cer-

tain life situation corresponding to his position (for example, the role of a leader, subordinate, father, mother, etc.).

S

SANGUINE - a type of temperament characterized by energy, increased efficiency and quick reactions.

SCHEME OF THINKING - a system of concepts or logic of reasoning habitually applied by a person when meeting with an unfamiliar object or a new task.

SELF-ACTUALIZATION is the use and development by a person of his inclinations, their transformation into abilities. Striving for personal improvement. S. as a concept introduced in humanistic psychology.

SELF-SUGGEMENT is a process aimed at suggesting to oneself ideas, thoughts, feelings that contribute to the elimination of painful phenomena and the improvement of general well-being.

SELF-CONTROL - the ability of a person to maintain inner peace, to act reasonably and balanced in difficult life situations.

SELF-DETERMINATION OF A PERSON - an independent choice by a person of his life path, goals, values, moral standards, future profession and living conditions.

SELF-ASSESSMENT - a person's assessment of his own qualities, advantages and disadvantages.

SELF-REGULATION is the process of managing a person's own psychological and physiological states, as well as actions.

SELF-CONSCIOUSNESS - a person's awareness of himself, his own qualities.

SENSATION is an elementary mental process, which is a subjective reflection by a living being in the form of mental phenomena of the simplest properties of the surrounding world.

SENSITIVE PERIOD OF DEVELOPMENT - a period in a person's life that provides the most favorable conditions for the formation of certain psychological properties and types of be-

havior in him.

SENSITILIZATION - an increase in the sensitivity of the sense organs under the influence of certain stimuli on them, in particular those that come at the same time to other sense organs (for example, an increase in visual acuity under the influence of auditory stimuli).

SENSITIVITY - the ability of the body to remember and respond to environmental influences that do not have direct biological significance, but cause a psychological reaction in the form of sensations.

SENSOR - associated with the work of the senses.

SHORT-TERM MEMORY - a memory designed to store information for a short period of time, from several to tens of seconds, until the information contained in it is used or transferred to long-term memory.

A **SIGN** is a symbol or object that serves as a substitute for another object. **SKILL** is a formed, automatically carried out movement that does not require conscious control and special volitional efforts to perform it.

SKILL - the ability to perform certain actions with good quality and successfully cope with activities involving these actions.

SMALL GROUP - a small group of people, including from 2-3 to 20-30 people engaged in common activities and having direct personal contacts with each other.

SOCIO-PSYCHOLOGICAL CLIMATE - a general socio-psychological characteristic of the state of a small group, especially the human relationships that have developed in it.

SOCIAL NORMS - rules of conduct adopted in a given society or group that regulate the relationship of people.

SOCIO-PSYCHOLOGICAL TRAINING - the theory and practice of special psychotherapeutic influence on people, designed to improve their communication and adaptation to living conditions.

SOCIAL EXPECTATIONS - judgments, actions and deeds expected from a person occupying a certain position in society, corresponding to his social role.

SOCIAL STEREOTYPE - distorted social attitudes of a person towards people of a certain category, which arose under the influence of a limited or one-sided life experience of communicating with representatives of a given social group: national, religious, cultural, etc.

SOCIOMETRY is a set of similarly constructed methods designed to identify and present in the form of sociogram and a number of special indices of a system of personal relationships between members of a small group.

SOUL - the old name used in science before the appearance of the word "psychology" is the name of the totality of phenomena studied in modern psychology.

SPEECH is a system of sound signals, written signs and symbols used by a person to represent, process, store and transmit information.

STATUS - the position of a person in the system of intra-group relations, which determines the degree of his authority in the eyes of other members of the group.

STATE EDUCATIONAL STANDARDS are the definition of requirements for the content and quality of general secondary, secondary specialized, vocational and higher education

STORAGE is one of the memory processes aimed at retaining received information in it.

STRENGTH OF THE NERVOUS SYSTEM - the property of the nervous system to withstand prolonged and heavy loads.

STYLE OF LEADERSHIP - a characteristic of the relationship that develops between the leader and the followers. The methods and means used by the leader to exert the necessary influence on people dependent on him.

STRESS is a state of mental (emotional) and behavioral disorder associated with a person's inability to act expediently and

reasonably in a given situation.

SYMBOL - a sign of something that has a certain resemblance to the designated object.

SYMPATHY - a feeling of emotional predisposition to a person, increased interest and attraction to him.

SYNESTHESIA is the ability of a stimulus, addressed by nature to an adapted sense organ, to simultaneously cause an unusual sensation in another sense organ. For example, when perceiving music, some people may experience visual sensations.

SUBSTITUTION (sublimation) is one of the protective mechanisms, which is a subconscious replacement of one, forbidden or practically unattainable, goal with another, permitted and more accessible, capable of at least partially satisfying an urgent need.

SUCCESS MOTIVATION - the need to achieve success in various activities, considered as a stable personality trait.

SUGGESTION is the unconscious influence of one person on another, causing certain changes in his psychology and behavior.

SUBJECTIVE - pertaining to a person - a subject.

T

TALENT - a high level of development of human abilities, ensuring the achievement of outstanding success in a particular type of activity.

TEST is a standardized psychological technique designed for a comparative quantitative assessment of a studied psychological quality in a person.

TESTING - the procedure for applying tests in practice.

TESTED - a person who is subjected to scientific psychological experiments.

TENSION - a state of increased physical or psychological arousal, accompanied by unpleasant internal feelings and requiring relaxation.

TEMPERAMENT is a dynamic characteristic of mental processes and human behavior, manifested in their speed, variability, intensity and other characteristics.

THEORY OF ACTIVITY - a psychological theory that considers the mental processes of a person as types of internal activity arising from external activity and having a structure similar to external activity. etc. developed by A.N. Leontiev.

THINKING is a psychological process of cognition associated with the discovery of subjectively new knowledge, with the solution of problems, with the creative transformation of reality.

U

UNCONSCIOUS - a characteristic of the psychological properties, processes and states of a person that are outside the sphere of his consciousness, but have the same effect on his behavior as consciousness.

UNDERSTANDING - a psychological state that expresses the correctness of the decision and is accompanied by a sense of confidence in the accuracy of the perception or interpretation of any event, phenomenon, fact.

V

VALIDITY - the quality of the method of psychological research, expressed in its compliance with what it was originally intended to study and evaluate. VALUES - what a person especially appreciates in life, to which he attaches a special, positive life meaning.

VERBAL-LOGICAL THINKING - a type of human thinking, where verbal abstraction and logical reasoning act as a means of solving a problem. VERBAL - pertaining to sound human speech.

VISUAL-ACTIVE THINKING - a way of practical problem solving, involving a visual study of the situation and practical actions in it with material objects.

VISUAL-FIGULATORY THINKING is a way of solving problems, including observing the situation and operating with

images of its constituent objects without practical actions with them.

W

WAKEFULNESS - Wakefulness is a daily recurring brain state and state of consciousness in which an individual is conscious and engages in coherent cognitive and behavioral responses to the external world. Being awake is the opposite of being asleep, in which most external inputs to the brain are excluded from neural processing.

WAXY FLEXIBILITY - Waxy flexibility is a psychomotor symptom of catatonia as associated with schizophrenia, bipolar disorder, or other mental disorders which leads to a decreased response to stimuli and a tendency to remain in an immobile posture.

WILL - a legal declaration of a person's wishes regarding the disposal of his or her property or estate after death. especially : a written instrument legally executed by which a person makes disposition of his or her estate to take effect after death.

WILL is a property (process, state) of a person, manifested in his ability to consciously control his psyche and actions. It manifests itself in overcoming obstacles that arise on the way to achieving a consciously set goal.

WILL TO POWER - Will to power is representation that posits values. The pursuit of truth mutates into the will to power. Nature is the will to power. They are all expressions of the will to power.

WITHDRAWAL - voluntary volitional rejection of something, the suppression of any drives in oneself for a certain period of time or throughout life.

WITHDRAWAL SYMPTOMS - the unpleasant physical reaction that accompanies the process of ceasing to take an addictive drug.

WISH FULFILLMENT - Wish fulfillment is the satisfaction of a desire through an involuntary thought process. Wish ful-

fillment can occur in dreams or in daydreams, in the symptoms of neurosis, or in the hallucinations of psychosis. This satisfaction is often indirect and requires interpretation to recognize.

WISHFUL THINKING – Britannica Dictionary definition of **WISHFUL THINKING** [noncount] : an attitude or belief that something you want to happen will happen even though it is not likely or possible.

WORD-BUILDING TEST – the act or process of spelling out words (as in a contest) with the use of only those letters found in a particular word or phrase.

Z

ZONE OF POTENTIAL (PROXIMITY) DEVELOPMENT -

opportunities in mental development that open up in a person with minimal outside help. The concept of C.p.r. introduced by L.S. Vygotsky.

ZOOPHOBIA (ˌzʊʊəˈfəʊbiə) noun. an abnormal fear of animals.

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LBC: 88.6+74.0ya7

UDC: 37.015.3(075.8)

ISBN: 978-9910-9474-2-1

A95

NIGORA AKHMEDOVA

PSYCHOLOGY, PEDAGOGY
Textbook

